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The Week.

THE Senate has been as determined all this week as it was last to do nothing, with the Tenure-of-office Act, but the strength of the friends of the repeal must be not very far from equal to that of their opponents. They made bold to call a caucus of senators, evidently in good hope of its action being in their favor, but they were defeated; the caucus decided to leave it untouched until after the 5th of March. What some of the reluctant senators are thinking of is well enough understood, and if it were not, it might be gathered from the remark attributed the other day to one of them, to the effect that "Grant would find himself mistaken if he imagined he could get along without him"—the speaker. On Wednesday week the Senate had up the proposed Constitutional Amendment. It would not have a conference with the House, and stood out for the form of words reported by its own Judiciary Committee; but the fact is, we suppose, that there is much lukewarmness as regards the matter both in Senate and House. Last Tuesday, however, it was brought up again by Mr. Stewart, who succeeded in getting the committee appointed; and as Constitutional Amendments do not require reference to the President, and are not susceptible of being vetoed or "pocketed," there is still time for the passage of this one and its submission to the States. The Kansas Senate, by the way, has just defeated a proposition to strike the word "white" out of the State constitution, a vote significant of what would be the fate of the Amendment in that body. On Thursday, by a majority of 2, the bill to abolish or effectively to modify the franking privilege was defeated as usual, and "every man still may rob as he please," as the song says, provided only he himself writes his name on the wrapper of whatever article he sends by mail, and does not use a stamping-machine. On Friday, Mr. Trumbull made a vain attempt—one of many—to get the bill reorganizing the Supreme Court up for consideration. There is now a denial of justice in each circuit court of this court on account of the judges, too few in number, having to do too much business in the district courts, and thus being compelled to leave undone for three or four years work that should be done in one. On Tuesday the bill came up again and was passed. It appoints nine new judges, one for each circuit, resident in the circuit; but it does not prohibit the other judges from doing circuit court work. On Saturday there came up one of those cases in which a ship-owner sues for an American register for a vessel which, during the late war, was put under British colors. As we remarked when the last application of this kind was made, enough has already been done for "patriotism"

in this matter, and it is time that it should be looked at sensibly. Mr. Sumner and Mr. Conkling favored giving leave, but, as the American Eagle owns no shipping, and as Mr. Nye's constituents have none either, Mr. Nye all in a minute was in a light blaze of patriotism at the proposal. On Monday the Currency Bill, as it came from the House, occupied the day in the Senate.

Appropriations have been the order of the day in the House for the past week, and of appropriations that for the army got most attention. Several schemes were before the House, but the chief were Mr. Butler's, Mr. Dodge's, and Mr. Blaine's, the two latter being not different in principle, and both being strongly opposed by Mr. Butler, who, however, was defeated by 111 to 64. His plan was peremptorily to discharge men and officers till the estimates should be reduced by a certain amount. By the plan adopted no new commissions are to be given nor new enlistments made, and consolidation is to be done to such extent as may seem best to the General of the army until such time as the forces are reduced to twenty regiments of infantry and five of artillery and cavalry; and meantime no promotions shall be made, nor any new appointments, in the various departments. This number of organizations may very likely contain 25,000 men; what we have now contain, say, 38,000 men, and their expense for the coming year is estimated at something like \$34,000,000, which is surely not a great sum when we think of the South and the Plains. It is less, proportionally—the statement was made in debate—than the expenses of the army in the happy days of Mr. Buchanan. On Wednesday the House received a report from the Committee on Elections that none of the three claimants of the seat in Congress for the Second Louisiana district (Mr. Menard's) is entitled to it. On the following day Mr. Boutwell informed the House that he had intended to bring in a bill to establish a provisional government in Mississippi, but that he would not do so, as the gentlemen of the Democratic side of the House had frankly informed him that they would filibuster till the end of the session, and prevent its passage. This statement Mr. Eldridge cheerfully confirmed. Up to Saturday there was intermittent but long discussion of the National Currency Bill, which on that day was passed and sent to the Senate, which body likewise shows an inclination to pass it.

The Senate continues to gain in distinction, though not always of the most enviable kind. The revelation recently made of Mr. Wade's fitness for the post of presiding officer in troublous times sheds some curious light on the capacity of the body as a judge of character. Since then it has repudiated the Reconstruction Acts *in toto*, and shut out the Georgia senators on general grounds, just as if the acts did not exist. More recently it "amended" the House amendment to the Constitution in such reckless fashion that Wendell Phillips in last week's *Anti-Slavery Standard* actually denounced it for its "radicalism," and advised it to consider not Eternal Justice but the possibilities of the occasion. In this amendment it sought to prohibit the exaction of educational qualifications even for office—a proposition the like of which was probably never before made in a civilized country, and the adoption of which would not only have put an end to all hope of reform in the civil service of the United States, but have prevented any State from attempting any reform in its own civil service, let it be ever so much convinced of its necessity. The most charitable construction, and we have no doubt the correct construction, of Mr. Wilson's course in introducing it is that he had not fairly thought the measure out to

its general results, and had his mind concentrated on various devices to which the South might resort for keeping the negroes from the polls or out of office. But then, as we have said more than once, the best mode of getting the negro fully and fairly into the body politic is only one-half of the question of reconstruction; the other half is the kind of body politic you get him into. It is well to make him free of the city, but it is not well and not necessary to bring him in through a hole in the walls, and prepare for him by undermining the houses, tearing up the pavements, and spreading general confusion. He is even more interested than white men, because he is weaker than white men, in the preservation of all existing guaranties for good government, including pure and efficient administration of the finances and the laws.

The Judiciary Committee of the Senate have just made a report which for clearness and brevity is a model of what a report should be. As for the conclusiveness of the argument, it may be as well to wait for the Supreme Court to pronounce on the question involved, and that it will have to do sooner or later, and probably before very long. The report relates to the recent proclamation of amnesty put forth by Mr. Johnson, with whom pardoning has become a mania, and of whom it is said that during these last few days of his power he is undergoing the punishment of being perfectly beset by the friends and business agents of scores of revenue thieves, counterfeits, forgers, and the like. In his late proclamation he undertook to give full pardon and amnesty to all rebels—to speak briefly—and to do this in virtue of a power conferred on him by a certain provision of the Constitution. The present generation, thinking of amnesty, will perhaps be most apt to think of the proclamation made by Mr. Lincoln in the end of 1863, in which he also offered full pardon and amnesty; but he made the offer in virtue not only of his constitutional power “to grant reprieves and pardons”—which is the clause in which Mr. Johnson seeks his justification—but also expressly in virtue of acts of Congress—since modified or repealed—authorizing the President to offer and grant full amnesty. The committee begin by defining “reprieve” and “pardon”—legal words with a well-fixed meaning. They then show that “amnesty” also is a legal term, which also has a perfectly well-defined meaning, and of which it is enough for us to say here, that while “pardon,” as known to English law and to ours, took a specified man and remitted that part of his punishment which he had not undergone, “amnesty,” for its part, was an act of oblivion, looked backwards as well as forwards, and left the man amnestied as he was before his offence was committed, as if there had been no offence. For example, in England amnesty purified blood corrupted by attainder, pardon did not. Thus, too, in some of our States, the governor’s pardon, if received by a man condemned to the State prison for a certain time, would not disannul the divorce from his wife which his sentence had inflicted. But amnesty is the act of the sovereign power—which in this country is the President with Congress—and its effect is to wipe out the very crime, not merely to make some remission of punishment to a criminal. It is not to be supposed, the committee argue, that the men who framed the much-discussed Constitution—men, many of them, of sound legal knowledge, and men, too, disposed to bridle rather than extend the power of the officer who was among us to represent, more or less well, the kings of other countries—it is not reasonable to suppose that they did not use the terms “pardons and reprieves” with a full sense of their exact meaning, and had not, too, a clear intention in omitting as they did the wider term “amnesty.” The committee, therefore, have reported a resolution which declares the Christmas Day proclamation to be, in the Senate’s opinion, of no force. But of course it must be the courts that settle the matter.

The President’s veto of the Copper Tax Bill is comparatively short, and is one of the few documents of the kind which have come from him that will repay the reading. We referred a month ago to the contest between the miners of Lake Superior and the Atlantic smelters—the former demanding protection on the ground that they were starving, and the latter as strenuously opposing any increase of duties on

copper and copper ores, on the ground that then *they* would be in danger of starving. That is to say, Congress was asked to bolster up the less important industry of the two, judged by its productiveness, by paralyzing the more important; and what it was asked to do it did, for no other reason, apparently, than that whatever appeals for protection creates a presumption in its favor. Mr. Johnson not only sets forth this conflict of interests, and the loss which the country would immediately sustain by the diminished production of copper and the consequent enhancement in its price, along with the falling off in the customs receipts because of the nearly prohibitory duty, but he adds, what he probably knows for a fact, that the effect of the law if enacted would be to enhance the cost of blue vitriol 70 per cent., and thus interfere most seriously with such great industries as the dyeing and printing of colored cloths. We should then have created new claimants for protection against foreign competition, that would be satisfied only by another increase of duties, entailing fresh embarrassments on other industries, and so on indefinitely. The *Tribune* says that “this veto will delight the organs of the free-traders,” but it does not undertake to show why, without reference to any general theories, it should not meet the approval of everybody capable of taking in the facts of this particular case. To pretend that protection, abstractly, under all conceivable circumstances, is advantageous, is to assert that if the smelters had got the start in asking for some discrimination against the miners, they ought to have received it—a self-evident absurdity. The House on Tuesday barely passed the bill anew over the veto.

Since the failure of the Congressional Committee to discover what Judge Field said at Jeremiah Black’s dinner-party, we have never felt much confidence in the efforts of these committees to find out what is said at *any* dinner-party. The attempt made by Chief-Justice Chase, for instance, at *his* dinner-party to bribe the bad senators to acquit Andrew Johnson is still surrounded with mystery in spite of even Butler’s great investigation, and though it is well known that most of the villainies of Copperheads and Conservatives are concocted around the social board—falsely so-called—the nation is left just as much in the dark as ever about the particulars of these scenes of wickedness and debauchery. It now appears that Mr. Corcoran, the Washington banker and a prominent Copperhead, openly announced, during the war, at his dinner-table, that “he would give \$100,000 to have Mr. Lincoln put out of the way.” One of the waiters heard him, and that waiter is now the steward of the Russian minister; but being summoned before the Congressional Committee now sitting on Corcoran’s application to have his house in Washington restored to him, the man absolutely refuses to say what he heard at the dinner in question, and thus we are left just as ignorant as ever of what Corcoran says at his meals and what his servants manage to pick up. The matter will rest here, no doubt; but ought it? Why not take a look into Corcoran’s private check-book and see what payments he has made since the commencement of the enquiry?

A man was sentenced in the Recorder’s Court in this city last week to twenty years’ imprisonment for an outrage of extraordinary brutality on a young girl of seventeen. She begged, naturally enough, after he had been convicted that he might be compelled to marry her, and the Recorder very properly insisted on his doing so, and the ruffian very cheerfully complied. But in consideration of his doing so sentence was suspended, and the couple left the court-room with the understanding that if the “husband” failed to support the wife and treat her well the sentence was to be carried out. It is difficult to see on what theory of the nature and objects of judicial punishment the court allowed this arrangement to be made. The sentence of twenty years’ imprisonment was surely not pronounced by way of vengeance, or by way of compensation to the girl, and yet it is only on the supposition that it was, that the remission of the whole penalty in consideration of the marriage could possibly be justified. If, on the other hand, the man’s fate was intended to prove a warning to others, the Recorder must have somewhat singular notions about marriage, as well as about the moral and mental condition of New York roughs. Of course there

is not one of the class to which the criminal in this case belonged who would not marry twenty girls in a day in order to escape even a month's imprisonment, and a worse fate than to have one of them for a husband no girl could encounter. The Recorder's expectation that a man of this kind, who marries a woman in order to escape sentence for a criminal assault, will live with his wife longer than suits him, or will ever work for her at all, or will do anything but leave her to support herself and one or two of his children, seems to indicate much more youthful and innocent views of life than are usually met with on the bench of a criminal court. A more deliberate and atrocious crime is not often committed in the streets of the city than the one which in this instance has been atoned for by going through the marriage ceremony, and there can hardly be a doubt that the result will be to make the streets more unsafe for women than ever. The threat that the sentence might yet be carried out was of course an empty one.

The occurrence is worth the attention of those who are occupied with the woman's rights question, as an illustration of the disturbing influence which sex after all exerts on the merely economical part of the problem. Here is a respectable young girl who comes to the city, as hundreds of young men do every day, in search of employment. She arrives late, has difficulty in finding a lodging, and while looking for one falls in with a well-dressed ruffian who decoys her into a public house, and outrages her within hearing of the police. All young women who leave home to seek their fortunes are exposed to just this risk, and have to be guarded against it by extraordinary and necessarily expensive precautions on the part of friends or benevolent persons. Even when they come to the city to seek an education—professional or other—they have to take extra care of themselves, keep within doors at certain hours, avoid certain localities, and go about their business at all times burdened with peculiar anxiety; and this not because they are physically weak or timid, for plenty of men are weak or timid, *but because they are women*. One consequence of the simple fact of their sex therefore is, that they enter the labor market to compete with men on unequal terms. They are weighted—so to speak—in the race of life by their sex, even though their mental and moral qualities may be, as some maintain they are, the same as those of men. It may, of course, seem convenient to say in reply to this that this would not be the case if men had reached a higher stage of mental and moral culture, but this is a mere cloaking of the point. The *actual* moral or mental condition of men is one of the elements in the problem, how woman's condition is to be improved. In other words, the question has to be considered with reference not simply to women's capacity, but to the actual condition of society. We mention the matter as one of the things to which we should like to see platform agitators turn their attention, but which they carefully avoid. When you mention men's passions as one of the difficulties of the case, they are apt to reply scornfully that men ought not to have passions—a proposition which may be true, but is singularly irrelevant, and leaves us just where we were.

The death of Mr. James T. Brady, which occurred too late last week to allow of our doing more than make mention of it, and is now so long gone by that anything we can say about it will seem flat and stale, was nevertheless too great a loss to the bar of this city and to the whole community to permit of our passing it over without any notice at all. To his many great qualities, both personal and professional, his brethren have perhaps done justice; but we doubt if enough has been said, and it is hard to expect that enough should be said, of the extent of the calamity, in the existing condition of the bench and bar in this city, involved in the loss of even one of those members of the profession who still keep alive in their own walk and conversation the traditions of an earlier and better time. Mr. Brady was something more than a successful lawyer. He was the soul of professional honor, and he had that extreme sensitiveness without which professional honor, like female modesty, has never long survived anywhere—which dreads suspicion almost as much as wrong-doing. He was not satisfied

with being pure; he did not rest content, as so many knaves do, "with the approving voice of his own conscience." He desired that men should never have reason to dream of his being anything else than pure, and governed his practice accordingly. To a man of whom this may be said at a time when the general tendency is to treat reputation as a thing of only trifling consequence, many more and worse faults than Mr. Brady had might be freely forgiven.

The news by the Cable has been of no great importance. Parliament was opened on Tuesday week, but the Irish Church debate is yet to begin. In Spain the Provisional Government has resigned, and the Cortes have made Marshal Serrano temporary executive. In France, M. Forcade has enforced his previously announced intention to repress public gatherings in abuse of the law permitting them. The Paris Conference has decently laid the ghost of the Eastern difficulty and held its last session; Turkey has reopened its ports to Greek shipping, and a new election for members of the Greek Chambers, in place of those just dissolved, has been ordered. Athens—and, through Athens, Greece—now boasts of a railroad, connecting the city with its port, Piræus. The opening took place on New Year's day, by the Greek calendar, and was an event which we hope will justify all the flag-flying it gave rise to. Together with the reviving importance of Brundisium as a railway and steamer station, and the restoration of the Suez Canal, it marks a curious infusion of modern life into the antique frame.

The *Pall Mall Gazette* makes some comments, which seem just, on the recent conversion of two notable personages—the political conversion of M. Sainte-Beuve, and the religious conversion of the enormously wealthy young Marquis of Bute—which we reproduce on account of their intrinsic interest, and because they serve to illustrate the remarks of our English correspondent in another column; because, too, what it says on the subject gets further illustration from the religious proceedings—to call them so—which have recently been taking place at Auburn, in this State. The points the *Gazette* makes are these: that now, for the first time in what may be called modern history, or even in the history of Christianity, the issues between the natural and the ecclesiastical ways of looking at the universe are being raised with very great sharpness and neatness; at every other period these issues were confused, often confused by great violence, often by being inextricably bound up with political interests of the most obvious and important kind; but in our age, and more and more so every day, it is not so very hard for a man, throwing aside political and social considerations, to avow and act upon his real convictions as regards the proper way of looking at the world. Then there is at once a chance for the forces to be drawn off into two camps and to join battle, with such results as may be. This is not saying that politics and religion will ever be entirely disentangled; on the contrary, the case of the Marquis of Bute turning Catholic, the fact that the Roman Catholic Church seems to gain in favor with the wealthier, more fashionable, less intellectual, more distinctively "upper class" part of English society, might almost embolden one to generalize and say that the natural Tory—which is what in politics the distinctively "upper class" person is—would naturally be a Catholic in religion. On the other hand, the natural English Liberal should be a natural Protestant, and it would not be hard at all to find the reasons why this should be so. Few Catholics in this country, whether rich or poor, are Republicans, and few "advanced" Protestants are ever Democrats. In the case of the Auburn troubles between Bishop McQuaid and the refractory congregation, we see what is not now seen for the first time in the history of Irish Catholicism: the certain degree of liberalism, of practical political protestantism, which has been acquired by the men who turned Father Kavanagh out of the church and "persuaded the Bishop to retire," after informing him that they were determined to have a priest of their own choosing, and "to submit no longer to the one-man power," is assuredly making bad Catholics of them. So, too, of the freedom of thinking, such as it was, that the Fenian movement induced; the politician repudiated the priest.

THE NEW ADMINISTRATION AND THE FREEDMEN.

It is natural enough that those who have been laboring during the last four years to secure the deliverance of the freedmen from all legal disabilities resulting from their color or previous condition should form in their own minds, and should communicate to the minds of others, an exaggerated notion of the immediate value of what they have been seeking to accomplish. When the Reconstruction Acts were under debate, it was the custom of Messrs. Stevens, Boutwell, and others to treat as sacred not simply their great object, but also the particular means they fixed on for its accomplishment; that is, they put a person who was opposed to the elevation of the negro altogether in the same category with the person who was opposed to their mode of seeking his elevation. It was, therefore, with the greatest reluctance they allowed anybody to debate their various bills. Out of pure "courtesy" they used occasionally to give their opponents five minutes, or fifteen minutes, or, though very rarely, an hour, in which to comment on their measures; but they always made the concession with the angry and contemptuous air of persons whose opinions it was folly and presumption for any of their fellow-creatures to try to change, and who were condemned by the silly usages of a corrupt age to listen to wicked men twaddling against the most valuable and effective reform human wits had ever devised. It was, of course, impossible to hope for efficient legislation from men in this state of mind. He is no statesman who does not want to hear his measure criticised by his opponents, because he is no statesman who is not more concerned with the question of making his measure work than with the question of getting it enacted; and there is no way in which the obstacles to its working can be got at so readily as by hearing what its enemies have to say against it. Let them be ever so factious, they are seldom so discreet as not to draw attention to its weak points, and betray the devices by which they hope to defeat its practical operation; but the *working* of the Reconstruction measures, provided they could get the House and Senate to give them three readings and a two-thirds majority to pass them over the President's veto, seemed to give their promoters no more trouble than if they had received them directly from the hands of the Almighty.

In this way of looking at them, too, they received, unhappily, plenty of support from a portion of the press. There was not one of their foolish predictions and wild threats and expectations which the *New York Tribune* did not hail as pure wisdom. The immediate "regeneration" of the South under the operation of the Reconstruction Acts was talked of as if it were an accomplished fact. Anybody who was not convinced by Thaddeus Stevens's reasoning, and was not warmed by Mr. Boutwell's rhetoric, was set down as a man in sympathy with Copperheads and eaten up with "the sin of caste." It was, in short, impossible that legislation undertaken in such a spirit should be wisely executed, however sound its fundamental principles might be, and impossible, too, that utterly unreasonable and extravagant expectations should not be formed by the public with regard to its probable results. Of course these expectations have been moderated under the stern teaching of events. The *Tribune* and *Independent* do not venture now to sing a double-leaded psalm over the "regeneration" of another State every time the news comes that a new constitution abolishing discriminations based on color has been adopted by a "State lately in rebellion." After all that has happened in Georgia, Louisiana, Alabama, Mississippi, and Virginia, people are less hopeful and credulous. They see that the regeneration of States as well as of men comes slowly, and that it is only in poetry that "old forms of vice and crime" can be rung out, like the dying year, by a peal of bells; and that, no matter how noble the theories you may have got hold of, their application to the practical regulation of human conduct is one of the most intricate and difficult problems to which the human mind can address itself. Nothing is easier than to clothe them in bills and resolutions; nothing harder than to make whole communities really respect and obey them in their daily transactions.

What made it all the more desirable that great care and deliberation should be exercised in the framing of the Reconstruction measures was that any mistakes made in the work were sure to be irreparable. It was useless to hope for the long continuance at the North of the

temper towards the South, whether black or white, which carried the elections of 1866. It was useless to hope or believe that the extreme radical men would retain the hold on public confidence which the war had given them. Nobody needed to be a prophet, or even a very close observer of revolutions or of human nature, to foresee that when quiet times came they would lose their influence, and that those who came after them would hardly be disposed to supplement or amend their work, and that if the Reconstruction Acts did not work well, there would be the end of them. It would be useless to go over this ground now or to recall the failures or shortcomings of men who at least meant to do well—and who, if they did not accomplish all they sought, undoubtedly accomplished a great deal—if it were not now more than ever necessary to remind the public that the failure of the Reconstruction policy to do all that was predicted for it by no means releases either its opponents or its supporters from their responsibility to the South. The Government owed the negroes all the legal protection it could give them. It owed them perfect equality before the law; it owed them the same means of calling officials to account and of protecting themselves against class legislation which other men and other classes enjoyed; and these things it has given, and they can, in our opinion, never be taken away. Of this great glory the Reconstruction policy can never be deprived. But there is an evident disposition in every direction now to let Reconstruction alone; to let the acts and the Constitutional Amendment which we trust before long will be adopted, work as well as they can—or, in other words, to leave the negroes themselves to work as best they can the legal machinery provided for their use. One sees this tendency in the increasing concentration of the public mind upon questions, such as the finances and municipal and administrative reform, which only affect the freedmen as they affect all other members of the community. It was worthy of remark that, although nobody doubts Grant's determination to enforce order wherever the law permits him to interfere for its enforcement, he made no mention of Reconstruction, or of what some people call "the main question," in his reply to the deputation which informed him of his election. He enumerated the leading objects of his administration, but they were all questions of revenue and of financial administration. He is going to try to have the Government economically and efficiently served and the public obligations honorably met; but he is not going to assist any man or body of men in taking care of themselves. In other words, he is going to follow the good American plan of leaving everybody to work out his own salvation under the protection of the Constitution and the laws. Even Wendell Phillips admits at last that he looks for nothing more than the ratification of the Fifteenth Constitutional Amendment, and declares that with this he will be content. So that the negro must clearly make up his mind to share the common lot and submit to the common discipline. There is no doubt that for a time he will be dealt with unfairly. As we pointed out last week, neither the Amendment any more than the Reconstruction Acts can, under all the circumstances, prevent him from being frequently wronged and oppressed, because there is no political machinery to protect ignorance and inexperience completely against skill, vigor, and unscrupulousness, and the Southern whites can boast the possession of all three.

But it has now to be borne in mind that there is nobody so much interested in the success of all the reforms now under discussion as the negro. Anybody who has entertained extravagant expectations as to the results of the Reconstruction Acts or of the Constitutional Amendment, and is now suffering from disappointment, has the consolation of knowing that there is no class of the community which will derive so much benefit from a reform in the civil service, from an improved system of taxation, from the more honest and faithful collection of the revenue, from improvements in the administration of justice, from the purification of the ballot-box, and from economy in all branches of the Government, as the weakest and most despised class, whatever that may be. It is not the rich or the dextrous or shrewd who are most interested in good government. These generally manage to take care of themselves under any government, or even under no government at all. The people who go to the wall when legislators are ignorant and reckless, judges unlearned and corrupt, and tax-gatherers thievish and lazy, are the very poor and very weak, no matter

what may be their color, and the thorough remedies for the evils of poverty and weakness are found not in specifics but in general tonics. To make any part of the community permanently better in our day, you have to make it all better. To diminish the number of victims of oppression, you have to begin by diminishing the number of oppressors. In other words, you have to elevate the whole of society.

The devotion of the best portion of this community through a whole generation to the task, first, of preventing the spread of slavery, and then of destroying it, has permitted the growth of an enormous crop of abuses, which undoubtedly have weakened all the usual guarantees possessed by either poor blacks or poor whites for the enjoyment of their rights, so that the citizenship we now offer to the negro is undoubtedly worth considerably less than the citizenship we could have offered him twenty years ago. He is poor, and poor men count for less in politics than they did then, because the power of wealth, and especially of wealthy corporations, over legislation has enormously increased, and because the choice of officers for nearly every position in the Government has passed into fewer and less reputable hands; because the bar and judiciary have declined in learning and independence, and because the weight of taxation has increased without any increase of skill in the distribution of its burdens; because the number of officials has increased without any improvement in their organization or discipline; because crimes have increased, if not in number at least in variety and ingenuity, without any increase in the certainty or efficiency of the machinery of punishment or repression.

We look now for the rapid and successful application of the reformatory energy of the country to the extirpation of these new abuses, and anybody whose history or sympathies render him more interested in the lot of the negroes than in that of any other class of poor men—and this many good and able men may confess of themselves—may feel assured that whatever he does for the reform of the civil service, for the independence and learning of the judicial bench, and for the bringing of brawling, ignorant, and corrupt politicians into disrepute, he does for the freedmen. The next best service he can render them is to assist in their education. To educate a black man is to make him literally, in spite of the unpleasant state of things on the coast of Guinea, "an heir of all the ages," and to give him a weapon of offence and defence worth all the constitutional amendments ever passed. Men who know their rights have never yet been utterly confounded or brought to naught. No tyrants have ever yet long tyrannized over men who knew how to argue, and how to save money and wait, though many tyrants have tyrannized long in spite of statutes and constitutions.

THE LEGAL TENDER DECISIONS.

THE probable results of the action of the Supreme Court in all the legal tender cases now or lately before it will be, as we ventured to suggest last summer, that persons who made contracts in which they specifically agreed to pay money in coin, will have to pay it in coin; and persons who agreed to pay money, understanding that they would have to pay it in coin, and not anticipating the existence of any other kind of money, will have to pay it in coin; and persons of whom it may be fairly presumed that when they made contracts they anticipated that the payment to be made under them would be made in greenbacks, will have to receive payment in greenbacks. This, of course, is simply a roundabout way of saying that the Legal Tender Act will be treated as unconstitutional in so far as it impairs the obligation of contracts. In so far as it did this it was, as the *Times* said, a grievous wrong, no matter what may be said or thought about the constitutional power of Congress to issue paper money, or to make it a legal tender in payment of debts, and no matter what may be thought of the war power as a source of right. The horror which was excited in the breasts of some of our contemporaries when we made bold to predict the course of the Supreme Court on this subject, and expressed our satisfaction at the prospect, is rapidly giving way to a more just and sensible view of the subject. That horror, which was in itself an eminently respectable feeling, and closely allied to the feeling of disapprobation excited by the sight of any species of vice or immorality, was a remnant of the very useful but somewhat unreasoning enthusiasm

by which so many doubtful, but perhaps excusable, things were "put through" during the war.

The passage of the Legal Tender Act was in reality the levying of a forced loan under cover of the money-making power given to Congress by the Constitution, and the money-making power was used successfully to disguise the real nature of the transaction. All levying of forced loans is, however, a clumsy and wasteful operation. The sum a government derives from them, no matter how perfect its machinery or how great the confidence and support of the people, is very trifling in comparison to the amount lost by individuals through the shock given to industry and the stimulus given to fraud. Every issue of irredeemable paper, with a forced currency, brings but little in to the treasury compared to the loss it inflicts on creditors and dealers whose transactions extend over long periods of time. The only plea that can be made to cover it successfully is the plea of necessity. The thing is done, its defenders must say, because we cannot help it. We have to choose between this and a greater evil. This is the only plea which can be made successfully to cover military operations—the killing and devastation and lying which inevitably attend them. Attempts like De Maistre's, to elevate slaughter on the battlefield into a thing in itself holy, must always fail, because to be successful they would require a total recasting of men's moral organization. The release of whole communities from the usual restraints of the moral law, which war involves, may be restrained and regulated by what publicists call "the laws of war," but to the moral man, in quiet times, it can never seem other than detestable. It was, therefore, a mistake for anybody to keep on preaching after the war was over, and its necessities and anxieties had ceased, that the issue of the legal tenders, and the interference with contracts which it involved, was a good, legitimate, and normal exercise of the powers of government. It was like arguing for the perpetuation of martial law, the substitution of special orders for writs, and the introduction of ambuscades and spies into civil life. Any act of government which makes plighted faith a mockery, and enables a knave to evade the fulfilment of his obligations, can never be defended one minute after it has ceased to be necessary to prevent some greater evil; and nobody has attempted to show since 1865 what greater evil was prevented by continuing to give fraudulent debtors the right to pay off their debts in depreciated currency. No evil in time of peace is so great as the spectacle of legalized fraud.

Persistence in this preaching at last brought its legitimate result in the shape of the proposal to pay off the bondholders in depreciated currency. In the period since 1861 a new generation has come on the scene, which has no practical knowledge of gold and silver coin, or of its use as a regulator of currency and trade. The generation, too, which carried on the war, and saw the Legal Tender Act passed, got so accustomed to maintaining, first, that Congress had the same right to issue paper legal tender as metal legal tender; and, secondly, that the paper was just as good as, and in fact on the whole better than, the gold; and to abusing dealers in gold as "gamblers" and "traitors" who ought to be shut up in jail—that a very large portion of the community rapidly drifted into the belief that on the whole there was something preposterous on the part of the bondholders in expecting to be paid off in coin, and that it was an imposition to which the country ought not to submit. This belief having been diffused, of course there were soon plenty of demagogues found to preach it openly and vehemently, and after it had been preached awhile there appeared "weak-kneed" Republicans, and "managing men," like Senator Sherman, to advise the bondholders to give way, and agree to accept payment in greenbacks, as the best road out of a very disagreeable scrape.

When things had reached this pass, and it still seemed doubtful whether the authors of the proposed greenback swindle would not really succeed in deceiving the majority of the voters, we were delighted to learn that there was a fair chance of the Supreme Court's pointing out in calm judicial language the wide interval which in the forum of law, as well as in the forum of conscience, separates unredeemed promises to pay money from money itself. The confusion of purely moral with purely legal or material considerations which the war had brought about in the public mind, and the coloring which

party feeling gave to every discussion both of financial and legal questions on the stump and in the newspapers, made it very difficult to bring the exact state of the case home to the popular perceptions through any of the ordinary channels. Nearly everybody who has opened his mouth on the legal tender question for three or four years back has been suspected of prejudice or passion or selfishness in all he said about it. The judges of most of the State courts, to whom it has been submitted, being in closer dependence on popular opinion than they have ever been before, have not unnaturally shrunk from what seemed the tremendous responsibility of gainsaying what so many good men had been saying, and the best part of the community believing, for so long on such an exceedingly delicate subject as the value and power of the currency actually in use. Whether even the Supreme Court has weight enough to do it successfully still remains to be seen, but we think it has, and we have for some time hoped it would do it. Its last decision has acted like a bucket of water on a drunken man's head. One or two more in the same direction will completely sober most of the currency madcaps and put the greenbacks before us in their real character—as a makeshift which it was excusable to resort to at the outbreak of the war, but which is the source of incalculable evils, and whose disturbing influence on trade and on private and public morals should, now that the war is over, be kept within the narrowest possible limits till we finally get rid of them. They have already introduced a strong gambling spirit into all commerce and manufactures; they have contributed, in some degree at least, to the withdrawal of labor from production; they have enabled an immense number of rascals to cheat their creditors by paying back considerably less than they received, and they have thrown the popular mind into a state of confusion on the subject of value and good faith and national obligations of which it will take a good while to clear it.

Of course, the only complete remedy for the existing evils of the currency is a return to specie payments, or, to put the idea in what is far more accurate language, the redemption of its promissory notes by the Government. The greatest obstacle to this at present of course lies in the fact that the Government has not the money to redeem with; but another great obstacle will be removed when the public has been fairly brought to recognize the fact that the greenbacks are promissory notes and nothing else. In clearing up the fog which on this point envelopes the popular understanding, the judgments of the Supreme Court may prove an important help.

SECRET SESSIONS.

It is a little startling, but it is nevertheless true, that the American public have no more means of knowing the reasons which are about to prevent the Senate from ratifying the *Alabama* Claims Treaty than it has of knowing the reasons which induced the English Government to propose it. That it will be rejected no one for a moment doubts, but whether because, as some of the papers say, we can afford to wait until England admits her fault and agrees that the only question for arbitration is at what figure to set the amount of damages caused by it, or because no separate arbitration is provided for the *Alabama* matter, or because it is natural to reject a treaty negotiated by a minister who has made most of us angry with him by reason of certain social follies in which he has indulged himself, or for any other reason, the public will remain ignorant; the Senate sits with closed doors, and promulgates only the result. It is not merely that the *chauvinisme* of Mr. Chandler or the appeals to "God and humanity" of Mr. Yates fail to reach us, but Sumner and Trumbull and Fessenden and Conkling and Edmunds are also unheard. If the affair were a San-Juan protocol it might seem to make little difference whether the Senate opened its doors or shut them during the final debate; but the matter under discussion at present is one of the gravest international questions that has arisen in modern history—one which has already threatened the peace of two great nations, and which, as long as it is unsettled, endangers the commerce of the entire civilized world. During five years the hottest discussion has raged about it in both countries, and now, at the climax of the controversy, when the most interesting moment of debate arrives, when at length the subject is approached by men trained to the consideration of points of international law, and ended

at the same time with the responsibility of decision, the galleries are cleared, the reporters must take themselves off, and secrecy begins.

We cannot see any good reason why this should be so, and there are certainly many reasons for publicity. In the first place, one of the greatest evils arising from the system of secret sessions is that a public which is of course very ignorant of international law finds no means of enlightening itself, while it is able, notwithstanding, to exert the most powerful pressure on our foreign relations. In a country in which it is a truism that all power comes from the people, a principle is introduced which seems founded on the belief that the people are of no consequence whatever. No sound progress in Democracy is possible at all unless all make progress together; whatever is done by the leaders must at least be understood by the rank and file, for if this rule be neglected the rank and file, knowing they have the ultimate power, will nullify in some way or other the acts of the leaders. Now, we cultivate in the Senate a body of picked men, the most able representative body in the country, but on some of the most important topics that come before them we prevent their debates from having the slightest public effect. The result is natural; on these topics the public become more and more ignorant. Fifty years ago the foreign relations of America were more equitably adjusted than those of any other nation in the world; to-day they are assuredly not in a good way. It was only the other day that a number of discontented Irishmen planned, under the protection of our flag, the invasion of a country with which we were at profound peace. They organized, equipped, and despatched an army across the Canadian frontier. It seemed as if we were returning to a state of nature when a nation pretending to be civilized could permit such practices. Many of our newspapers and orators applauded, and when President Johnson, prompted by the simplest dictates of duty, doing what he absolutely had to do, arrested the movement, and performed the one act which entitles him to the respect of the country, abuse was showered upon him from every side, and the affair was spoken of in many quarters as if one of the inalienable rights of man was to take advantage of neutral territory to organize thieving, murdering attacks upon his neighbors. Again, a little later some of these same invaders, being captured, were held for trial. The law was simple enough; they were on the same footing with pirates. But a cry was raised that their being American citizens made a difference, and the trial was spoken of as an insult to this country and the invasion of American rights. The administration was requested to expostulate, and, although nothing had been done except to treat a crime as a crime, we seemed for a while to be really nearing war.

Now some, at all events, of such humiliations as these might be avoided if the public had any means of educating itself in international law. If the debates of the Senate on foreign affairs were public, we should know what reasons influence the most intelligent and cultivated body in the country in their decision of the important questions which are remitted to them for debate, and we should not be thrown back on the House of Representatives as the great school of instruction in the code which prescribes the relations of nations to one another. At present, although the Senate is the body which ratifies treaties, the House is the great forum of debate on foreign relations. What Mr. Fessenden or Mr. Sumner thinks of the *Alabama* treaty may never be known, but what Mr. Banks and Mr. Robinson, of Brooklyn, think of our proper attitude on the naturalization question, and what Mr. Orth thinks we ought to do with San Domingo, is telegraphed all over the world. This would not be so bad if the House took pains to inform itself of the matters which it discusses; but not having any responsibility, it feels free to advise in all directions, and is a full fountain-head of false doctrine. It has become part of the regular business of every session to refer some prominent topic of foreign affairs to Mr. Banks's committee, not for the purpose of obtaining light on the subject, but that a vote-catching report may be made, pandering to the prejudices of some particular class. The latest method is for the committee not to sanction, but to permit the introduction of a resolution—a plan which relieves them of all responsibility, and at the same time furnishes as ample an opportunity for speech-making as could be desired. This was the way in which Mr. Orth's resolution was brought in, requiring the administration to send a fleet to Dominican waters

for the purpose of reading homilies to the natives on the necessity of calmness and moderation in political affairs, and with orders to report progress at proper intervals.

The result, then, of the secrecy of the Senate's debates, and the publicity of those of the House, is this, that we fail to hear good reasons given, and have our minds perpetually confused by hearing bad ones. The newspapers can hardly afford a remedy, for they speak at best without authority or responsibility. The people are thus becoming more and more like a mob whenever the discussion of points of international law is involved. It is clear that if the Senate's debates were reproduced and criticised in every quarter as those of the House are now, part of the danger would be removed, for part of the ignorance would be dispelled. Is there any reason why they should not?

The theory on which the practice rests is the very old one that diplomacy is such a very delicate business that exposure to the light kills it. The old-fashioned way of carrying on diplomatic negotiations—and it is not so very old-fashioned that it does not exist to-day—was of assuming to begin with, as the major premise, that all diplomacy was villany; and starting from that point it is not surprising that the conclusion was adopted that the more secret the operations were the better. The theory was invented to supply the place of a still older one, which made each nation the natural enemy of every other, and a state of war the normal international condition. The earliest diplomats were statesmen whose habit it was in the early morning to send their neighbor an envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary with offerings of peace and good-will, following him up in the early afternoon with a strong military force, thus getting for their army of invasion the benefit of the feeling of repose produced in the enemy's mind by the herald of amity. That method answered the purpose admirably so long as international law was not recognized as binding, or hardly as existing; but when rules of action began to be applied to the conduct of nations in their relations with each other, it became evident that the simple methods of a simple age must give way to a more complete system. Then diplomacy proper was invented. Diplomacy is the art of so dealing with foreigners that you give to your acts the appearance of justice, and at the same time reap all the advantages of villany—the art of cheating on a grand scale under the pretence of the grandest equity. Diplomacy is the homage which international vice pays to international virtue. Let us illustrate our position.

Diplomacy wishes to acquire territory. Under the old system, a state filled with this desire of aggrandizement seized the territory it wished, sold the inhabitants as slaves, and filled it with new citizens. Not so to-day; diplomacy has different methods. In the diplomatic age, to begin with, a secretary of state offers to buy, and not having the power, as he well knows, to conclude the treaty of sale himself, he persuades the other contracting party that the body which has the power will ratify, reserving to himself, in case of error on this point, the right to doubt his own assertion. The other Government, not unaware of the habits of diplomacy, in order to make sure that all is right, sends a secret agent to talk the matter over with the ratifying body, and to discover whether its disposition is as reported by the secretary of state. The ratifying body, not liking the responsibility of deciding what its feeling may be, refers the agent to the committee of foreign affairs, reserving the right, without saying so, to differ in opinion from the committee; and the foreign affairs committee intimates an opinion that the secretary is quite correct in his representations, and that there are no objections to the proposed sale, making always the mental reservation that as they are not a responsible body, the treaty-making power cannot be concluded by what they may do. All this takes place in secret, and the result is that the agent is persuaded that a sale can be effected. He so informs his government, a protocol is drawn up and sent to the buying government for ratification. But it turns out that the buyers have not the money to buy with, and the secretary of state gravely informs the selling government that he had no authority to make any arrangement, while the committee tells him he was foolish to trust to a body which, as he must have known from his general reading and reflection, had no power which went farther than that of conversation, and the ratifying

body laughs in his face, and suggests that if he had been a little cleverer he would have managed differently.

If treaties had to be debated in the eye of the public no Senate would dare to countenance such proceedings, as we may see from the feeling of shame which even a semi-official exposure of the St. Thomas affair has elicited.

SNOW-DROPS IN ITALY.

Oh! loyal vestals in this land of sun,
Your white cheeks flush not, and your virgin eyes
Vouchsafe no lifted look. In vain the skies
Are red and pale with passion; swift clouds run
And beckon; warm winds call; long days are done,
And nights are spent, and still by no surprise
Your snows are changed to blushes.

Oh! where lies

The spell by which your gentleness can shun
These heats? Is it your hidden zone of gold?
Or in the emerald whose glimmers show,
Scarce show, beneath your white robes' inner fold?
Vain question! Still your calm bright peace ye hold;
And yet ye put my pulses all aglow,
With loyalty like yours to lands of snow.

H. H.

ROME, Jan. 14, 1869.

ANOTHER VIEW OF TOWN NOMENCLATURE.

If we name towns and cities badly, who has ever done better? and in the end will it make much difference? It is said our names are often full of awkward pedantry, or commonplace or unpleasant suggestion; that our invention is so poor we have to borrow constantly from our old homes.

Let any one study the matter, and he will feel that our pioneers, who mainly give the names, do on the whole quite well. In the main they are walking almost precisely in the footsteps of pioneers of other nations. There is a subtle law which the rough fellows obey unconsciously, making what is done now almost a repetition of what has been. Here are half a dozen names of towns and hamlets in Southern Ohio within a short ride of each other, taken almost at random: Xenia, Camp Dennison, Powder-Mill, Goe's Station, Springfield, Kill-Pig. If this list is not a fair sample of American town names, at any rate the specimens are not over-favorable. Xenia we have heard criticised. It would be set down as coming from the pedantry for which we are blamed. This pedantry we own has left more traces in our land than elsewhere. Admit Xenia to be objectionable on this account, yet, after all, such names are far from discreditable. A race would not adopt them unless a pretty competent schoolmaster were abroad in it. But granting that the stock is poor, Xenia is really a beautiful flower from it. Its initial sound is the softest of English consonantal sounds, suggesting the home of happy bees, "the mellow breezy bass" in the summer harmony. There is no sound following that is not soft and sweet. But it is more than melodious—its signification, friendly hospitality, is fine. The old pioneer who fifty years ago baptized the cluster of new cabins high up on the little Miami, showed by his choice, perhaps, that he liked to have people know he had seen the inside of a Greek dictionary; still, he had an ear for music and a gentle heart for his kind.

We are too near the time of the great war to have the name Camp seem other than prosaic. The oaths and the monotony, the grease of the cooking-booths, the canvas dirty with rough handling, the blue crowd in the tent trampling into the mire the scanty allowance of straw—the soldier and the soldier's visitor remember all these too well. But let the years fairly begin to roll in between the world and that tremendous time, giving a softness to outlines, as intervening atmosphere gives it to a hill, then Camp Dennison will become one of the most poetic of names. So far as we know, it is the only point in Ohio whose name commemorates the time of the great rebellion. To this generation its suggestions may be somewhat rude, but the whole surface of England is dotted with names of precisely similar character, instinct with charming poetry. The terminations *caster*, *chester*, *cester*, it is hardly necessary to say, are the Latin *castra*, and all towns so named were once the camps of Roman legions. At Exeter, Lancaster, Doncaster, Uttoxeter, and a score more, the soldiers of Cesar and Agricola, unbinding their sandals, have bathed their feet blistered with marches, and ground up the short swords dulled in campaigns against Picts and Iceni. The coarse blue coat is to be as poetic as the legionary's buckler. The spot where the rifle drill was learned before Atlanta and

Shiloh, and whose name recalls the measured foot-beat and the rattle of arms, will be hallowed ground.

Surely, one may say, a name derived from a prosaic manufacture like Powder-Mill will not last. If it does not, it will be an exception to a general rule in operation the world over. A mischievous proprietor in Canada once named two townships after his wife's lap-dogs, Flos and Tiny. It was like a boy throwing burrs in sport. They stuck where they were flung, and it was made a subject of complaint to the House of Commons that they adhered so close to the skirts of the Canadian territory. A thousand years hence, if your ghost should take the fancy to ride northward on the train from Cincinnati, more likely than not it will hear the brakeman of the period shout Powder-Mill, just as the spot is past. Nor need one smile at Goe's Station. Through phonetic decay its form no doubt will undergo change. Station in time will, very likely, become obsolete—associations may gather about it and adorn it, as lichens lend grace to the roughness of a stone. If this is the result, it will only be a repetition of what has taken place in the Old World. The termination *by*, so common in England, and often transplanted to America, is well known to be Danish, and to have very nearly this meaning of station. Derby is the station for Der, and Whitby White station; Rollesby, Ormsby, Grimsby, Swainsby, are simple stations of Rolf, Orm, Grim, and Swain, Danish free-boaters, the rank and file of a horde of pirates, in comparison with whom the worthy Goe, whoever he may be, in the shadow of the great white water-tank, which is about all one sees at "Goe's Station," is without doubt a gentleman and a scholar of immeasurable dimensions. *Ham*, too, is Saxon for dwelling, and *ton* for farm. *Ing* has a similar meaning. Denham, Higham, Basing, Epping, Leighton, and a hundred others, lending surnames to families that have become famous—saturated with the smell of hay-fields and daisy-bearing meadows to which they have been so long attached—these often are but the softened names of the old leather-clad swineherds, coupled with a word denoting their huts. It shows poverty of invention, perhaps, to name a town Springfield, rather than something new; but how natural that a settler who has left his heart in his early home behind him should give the name of that early home to his new village. Nothing is more natural, and few human customs are older. New England, throughout its whole extent, remembers the old home in its town names; and so, according to Livy, Æneas and Antenor, leading separate parties of exiles, both gave the name Troy to their respective colonies. "In quem primum egressi sunt locum, Troja vocatur; pagueque Trojano inde nomen est." And so, long before Troy even, the Aryan colonizers of Greece gave to their new seats familiar names from further East.

But now poor *Kill-pig*! Can the absurdity of the name be paralleled? Can it ever become dignified and agreeable? Why not? We have seen a proper whistle made out of a little pig's tail; and heard from the showman that his mother's ears had been made into silk purses. Just so, it is quite possible that things charming may come out of *Kill-pig* and names nearly as bad. The termination *y*, anciently *ea*, meant island. In England there is the stately city of Ely, high above whose venerable homes towers one of the earliest of English cathedrals. In the ninth century King Canute, from his barge in the stream near at hand, heard the chants of the monks from their cloisters and laid down his sceptre to set forth his emotion in a poem that is still extant. Ever since, the name has continued to appear, attended with the most dignified circumstance in a hundred splendid events in the history of a great empire. Yet at first it meant only the island where eels were caught. Netley, a name which more than any other name of England suggests arches and ivy and clustered columns, the song of the nightingale from the ruined buttress, is simply nettle-patch. So Naseby is said to be only nose-town. Versailles is from *verser*, and got its name in the time when the lumbering coaches of the old régime were overturned in the mire in the neighborhood. Stuttgart, Würtemberg's elegant capital, is primarily Horse-pen; and why should not classic Bannockburn suggest the same idea to Scotchmen that we should get from a name like Flapjack Creek? But if designations like these seem less intolerable in their primary meaning than *Kill-pig*, there is one still nearer. In the north of Dorset, close under the low hills that form the boundary of Somerset, lies a certain pleasant little parish. It is in the part of England where the grass is greenest and the air softest—a spot where the orange might almost mature as it does among the Canaries. Its name is amongst the most sonorous of English names and probably quite venerable, *Toller Porcorum*. Hearing the word pronounced, without analyzing it, one might wonder what Roman consul it was who here laid away his fasces when his time came to die, or what other event it was of moment to Rome that is commemorated in the sounding Latin genitive? Now, "toll"

plainly is Saxon, and is given by Bosworth as meaning toll or *taz*, while *Porcorum* is "of pigs." Candid reader, where would you rather live—in *Tax-pig* or *Kill-pig*? Which is the more agreeably suggestive? In *Tax-pig* you have the tithing-man on his way to the pound with a refractory and loudly complaining captive; but *Kill-pig* hints at the rasher and well-browned sparerib. But think of the *Kill-pig* of the future! In a thousand years, quite probably, the present meaning of the two words will have entirely vanished, as the meaning has vanished from *wick* and *caster* and *by*. Already it would be out of the question for our refined pen to write the three-lettered monosyllable beginning with *k* which designates the full-sized porcine animal; and even for a pig the polite prefer to say a swine, if they are forced to allude to him at all. Some time the words will have dropped out of use and lost their meaning entirely. A word, too, is much like a whip-lash. Cracked out by one of its Irish inhabitants, *Kill-pig* cuts the ear harshly enough. But *ig*, the hard snapper at the end, is almost certain to fray away into the softer *ich* or *ir* or *y*, or perhaps be snapped off entirely; while the sharp consonants *k* and *p*, hard edges along the thongs, becoming suppld, will fringe out into softer sounds. Then let it be associated a few generations with man. Now it is a name of yesterday, applied to what is hardly a hamlet. The landscape shows at present a straight track of railroad running north and south, with a pair of mud holes hung on either side, after the manner of saddle-bags, whose contents are shanties and styes. But let the grandson of old Ryan, the *Kill-pig* patriarch, grow up to be President; or in some future struggle let the spot be the scene of a great battle—there is no etching like the touch of blood to make gold out of the commonplace; or let it become profitable some time to work the iron ore in the vicinity; in the city that may spring up let *Kill-pig* become an agreeable suburb; let the cottage of a poet stand at last in what is now swamp, and a painter's studio in the clearing; let homes of taste stand behind trim hedges, and a picturesque ruin arise, draped in vines, and suitably provided with a ghost—it will not be strange if in time to come even *Kill-pig* becomes as pleasant in sound and suggestion as many an English name that had no better origin, but has become warm and beautiful and venerable through long contact with human interests. No let any one look at the matter and he will see we have no reason to reproach ourselves with exceptional want of taste. Our hap-hazard way of giving names is the fashion that has always prevailed when new men have occupied a country. No country is likely to have a different way. The backwoodsman takes the aboriginal name he finds, or whatever his convenience or rude taste suggests; and in the end too it makes little difference, though for a time the fastidious may suffer. Harsh syllables in three or four hundred years are very likely to grow melodious. Disagreeable meanings will fade out. Association with man will dignify and endear what primarily is trivial or low.

ENGLAND.

LONDON, February 5, 1869.

As Parliament does not meet for the next ten days, the ordinary period of Christmas dulness is protracted for a fortnight beyond the usual time. The papers fill their columns by various expedients, such as dissertations on spots on the sun and long accounts of episcopal installations. I think I should be almost justified in resorting to the Englishman's proverbial refuge, and discussing the weather. Indeed, I cannot avoid remarking that I am sitting by an open window without a fire, with a bright sun (bright, that is, for London) shining, and with an air as mild as that of the proverbial spring. We have read in the papers that the Seine is nearly frozen and that there has been skating in Florence. In England, we have not yet had even a glimpse of a frost. If American travellers would occasionally do us the favor to stay with us a little longer on their way to the Continent, they would discover that amongst the various blessings of a constitutional monarchy not the least is a happy freedom from the extremes of weather as of politics.

We are beginning, though languidly at present, the controversy about the Irish Church, which is to waste so much valuable time next session. Without prematurely opening that topic, your readers will, I believe, thank me for drawing their attention to one of the liveliest descriptions of Irish life that has appeared for a long time, which has been published in anticipation of this and other coming agitations. Mr. Trench, a land-agent of great experience, is the author. The title is *Realities of Irish Life*. Mr. Trench managed some large estates at the time of the famine, and sent several thousand of the tenantry to America by way of unburdening the property. In the course of this and other operations he incurred the enmity of the Ribbon-men. He was tried at one of their secret tribunals and

condemned to death, having, however, a reprieve of two days, because he had promised a pair of iron gates to one of his judges, who was therefore anxious that he should live long enough to keep his word. Meanwhile some well-wisher informed Mr. Trench of the plot, and for twelve months he never left his house, even to cross the street, without being armed to the teeth and accompanied by two other armed men. At length the murder of one of his neighbors, who was shot in the presence of a large number of the peasantry without a hand being raised in his defence, led to a discovery of the plot. One of the men arrested turned informer, and gave Mr. Trench a full account of the various ramifications of the scheme, of the means by which the assassins had endeavored to execute the sentence passed, and of the various hairbreadth escapes by which he had avoided them. The whole story is curious in the highest degree, and illustrates the social condition of Ireland, and some of the good and bad qualities of the peasantry, better than any novel I have read. The book contains many other vivid illustrations of different phases of Irish life, and is well worth reading, with two qualifications. The first is, that Mr. Trench, though refraining from drawing any general conclusions, is obviously a strong partisan of the Protestant landlord's view of the situation; the other, that it is difficult to suppose that he has not, to use the most delicate expression I can remember, "embroidered" his anecdotes a little. But a perfectly candid, accurate, and impartial account of Ireland remains to be written.

We are still engaged in studying the phenomena attendant upon an English election. There is a strong family likeness between the different cases, which makes it troublesome to wade through the reports of the trials. The way in which things are managed in a borough of weak virtue appears to be this: In the first place, the candidate pays a large sum of money into the bank, which somehow disappears in the course of the election. He knows as little as may be of the various channels by which the sum disperses itself amongst the constituents. He has to appoint an agent, through whose hands all the money must pass, and who has to make afterwards an official statement of the expenses. The task of the agent is to discover means by which the money may be spent so as to influence votes, whilst the items entered in the accounts may not have a suspicious appearance. One mode is to open committee-rooms in public-houses, and there to treat all right-minded persons to unlimited beer. The number of public-houses thus employed at Bradford was one hundred and sixty-four; but the extent to which treating had been allowed was difficult to determine, and there was always a certain haziness in the innkeeper's mind as to who had paid for the liquids consumed. Another plan is to hire a number of men as messengers or watchers. They are supposed partly to carry messages and partly to act as amateur detectives, keeping an eye upon the iniquitous practices of the other party. It is now illegal to employ in these capacities any one who is qualified as a voter at the election; but it is easy to find persons whose employment has an indirect effect upon the voters. A third plan is to cover miles of blank wall with placards, and to pay people handsomely for permission to exhibit them. The bare administration of hard cash seems to be comparatively rare, as it is evidently dangerous; but on one or two occasions a man in a mask has made his appearance distributing shillings and half-crowns with singular liberality. The other old-fashioned modes of bribery have been rendered illegal; but that which it is of course impossible to suppress is the indirect influence of wealth, the popularity which a man secures by spending money freely, and the intimidation exercised on tenants and dependants.

A good deal is being said as to the expediency of introducing the ballot with a view of making intimidation more difficult. It was tried the other day at Manchester by the Liberal party. They held a ballot, in view of the probable unseating of one of the lately elected members, to determine whether Mr. Milner Gibson or Mr. Ernest Jones should be the Liberal candidate. Poor Mr. Ernest Jones, a well-known radical and a Chartist who, in 1848, had the rare distinction of being imprisoned for seditious practices, was elected; within two or three days afterwards he died suddenly. The object of the experiment was to show, what I imagine is pretty plain, that with due precautions it is possible to secure secrecy and avoid fraud. It seems to have been successful, and will doubtless be quoted during the session by the advocates of the ballot. The measure seems not unlikely to pass the House of Commons, though the Lords may perhaps venture to reject it for the present. The usual arguments continue to be urged, but the real motive is the belief that a great and unfair pressure, which it is almost impossible to detect in a court of law, is exercised by landlords over tenants and by employers over workmen. How far this evil is prevalent it is, of course, impossible to decide; the influence is exercised by means as intangible as the contagion of the cholera. I have myself known cases in which men have voted from a traditional fear of their employers, when the employers

were perfectly ignorant or indifferent; and, on the other hand, I have known cases of cruel pressure, of which it would be impossible to bring distinct proofs. My belief is that the tendency is to exaggerate the evil, though in particular districts it is doubtless very prevalent.

Another legal proceeding is amusing us just now. A young Irish lady became a nun in a Roman Catholic convent in Yorkshire. There, for some reason which has not yet appeared, the mother superior became prejudiced against her, and resorted to a system of petty female persecution. She intercepted her letters to her family and kept from her news of the death of a brother. She made her eat nothing but mutton and mouldy bread, when the rest of the nuns were allowed a change of diet and good bread. She made her scrub floors when her hands were chapped, and ordered her to rub off the candle-grease with which the poor nun had ventured to anoint them. Finally she was turned out of the convent and an account of her behavior sent to the Catholic bishop, of which she complains as libellous. This story with its various details occupied several hours yesterday before Chief-Justice Cockburn, and the whole history will take some days more. If the plaintiff speaks truth, it is a curious illustration of the small spite and ill-nature sometimes generated by shutting up two or three ladies in a small house and giving one of them spiritual authority over the others; but perhaps the British Protestant will be relieved at finding that the evils of a convent are after all on so much pettier a scale than those which his imagination delights to paint. There are no nuns walled up alive in cells, but already they seem to be adepts in the art of sticking pins in each other.

Convents have become so common in England within the last few years that their management is a matter of some importance. We are growing accustomed to the sight of Sisters of Mercy and priests perambulating the streets of London; and it seems to be rather the policy of Catholics to make a display of their numbers and growing importance. How far their importance really increases would be a difficult question. A great fuss has been made about a young gentleman who happens to be Marquis of Bute and to possess £300,000 a year having lately joined their Church. Indeed, it is said that he intends to become a priest. The good people of Cardiff, to which town Lord Bute and his ancestors have been useful landlords, almost went out of their senses when he obtained his majority last year. They composed—though I believe they did not actually sing—a kind of hymn altered from our national air to "God save Lord Bute." Of course, the conversion of such a demigod makes a certain sensation, though an ordinary youth of twenty-one might not be supposed to be a very weighty judge of the matters in dispute. The fact is, however, that there is certainly a tendency on the part of the aristocratic and fashionable classes to drift Rome-wards, if not actually across the boundary—omitting, of course, the large number who drift the opposite way. Protestantism may be true or false, but it is a religion for tradesmen, whereas Catholicism, false or true, is a gentlemanlike religion. That I take to be the opinion of the Butes, including in that name the large number of people who indulge more or less in Butolatry. There are, as I need not say, many reasons of much greater potency which may swell the ranks of Catholicism; but the supposed vulgarity of Protestantism, especially in its Dissenting forms, is one minor cause, which falls in with the general demand for a religion more satisfying in an æsthetic point of view than that to which we are accustomed. Meanwhile the intellectual part of the country alienates itself more decidedly from all traditional forms; as is curiously illustrated in a recent controversy between the *Tablet*—the ultramontane organ—and the *Pall Mall Gazette*. The *Tablet* complains that the *Pall Mall Gazette* and *Saturday Review* always speak of Catholicism with a certain quiet contempt as an exploded system of belief which no reasonable man could seriously entertain, though he might respect it historically. It proceeded to accuse those papers of semi-concealed atheism, and in a series of four bitter articles denounced the *Pall Mall Gazette* with special unction. The *Pall Mall Gazette* made a short and contemptuous reply. It acknowledged and defended the views imputed to it in regard to Catholicism; but emphatically asserted its utter repudiation of atheism. The *Pall Mall Gazette* always speaks on such matters with an earnestness and obvious sincerity which deserve respect, and in its remarks on Catholicism it speaks the mind of the most educated classes. The charge about atheism is vague. Neither of the papers attacked can be fairly accused of atheism in the true meaning, but it is plain enough that many contributors to both hold a form of creed which would be generally called infidel, and which a Catholic would possibly think as bad as atheism. They throw a decent veil over it, it is true, but it is not the less obvious to any one who will read "between the lines." In the *Saturday Review* it is curiously mingled with an occasional High Church article, due to the influence of the proprietor. In the *Pall Mall Gazette* the chief writers are sincere though liberal

believers in some form of religion, but both papers are substantially in favor of some form of free-thinking.

Correspondence.

WEATHER REPORTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

The observations of the weather are now reduced to such a system in Great Britain that not only the interests of science but those of commerce and navigation are greatly promoted by them. A similar system in our own country would be of increased interest and value in proportion to the greater extent of country that would be covered by it. By means of the telegraph simultaneous observations of the weather might be reported in our daily papers from every quarter of the United States; and with the extension of the telegraph the system might easily be made to embrace the whole world.

As a practical illustration of the value of such a system to navigation, I may mention the suggestion made by one of our daily papers some years ago, that the telegraph should report the approach of our autumnal N. E. storms as a warning to vessels about to leave port. As these storms usually commence in the south and progress to the northward, as if the atmosphere were caving in from that direction, it is an easy matter for an observer at Charleston, S. C., to forwarn the ports to the northward of their approach. And to such perfection has our telegraphic system been carried that we might now have daily reports of the condition of the atmosphere, not alone from the chief points along all our immense sea-coast, but also from our inland seas—the lakes—and from our mountains and prairies. The daily papers might have a corner devoted to such reports, which would possess something of the interest of the almanac for everybody, and which would be much more valuable to scientific and commercial men, if not indeed to the community at large, than much of the political stuff which is now furnished to us by telegraph.

In order to commence a system of such reports it would be necessary to have the points of observation judiciously selected by practised meteorologists, such as Professors Henry and Loomis, the hours decided upon, and the proper instruments furnished. These instruments ought to consist of, 1st, the anemometer; 2d, the barometer; 3d, the thermometer; and 4th, the psychrometer.

I do not know what objections the newspapers might present against furnishing these reports for the information of their readers and the advancement of science, nor do I know what inducements they might require to undertake it; but an inducement to it which meteorologists might offer would be to subscribe to such papers as published weather reports in preference to any others. Not doubting that there are many others of a similar disposition, I extend to them the right hand of fellowship from

A METEOROLOGIST.

FEBRUARY 15, 1869.

Notes.

LITERARY.

MESSRS. FIELDS, OSGOOD & Co. announce for early publication another collection to match "If, Yes, and Perhaps," of Mr. Hale's magazine stories. "The Ingham Papers" will be the title of the new volume. The same house announce the speedy appearance of the second and last volume of "The Ring and the Book;" a new novel by Mrs. Stowe, entitled "Old-town Folks;" a volume of Mr. Stedman's poetry, with the title "The Blameless Prince and Other Poems;" "Our New Way Round the World," by Mr. C. C. Coffin (Carleton); "On the Wing," a book of advice and instruction to young sportsmen, by Mr. John Bumstead; and "The Brawnville Papers," by Professor M. C. Taylor, which originally appeared in the *Herald of Health*, and relate to physical culture. Besides these new works Messrs. Fields & Osgood have in press new editions of several old ones. Mr. Dana's "Two Years Before the Mast," which bids fair to be an immortal "boy's book," is to come out again with additional matter, consisting in part of the author's account of a second visit to the scenes of his narrative. The Pacific coast being a place very different from what it was twenty-five years ago, this addition will no doubt have much interest; but whether it will not have an interest too much its own to be of advantage to a book that we believe we, for our own part, would a little rather see unchanged, may be questioned. Miss Phelps's "Gates Ajar" goes into a xth edition.—Mr. Dion Thomas, of this city, will publish for subscribers a

book by a number of gentlemen, at the head of whom is Mr. Stephen Pearl Andrews, whose name most of our readers have heard, and which was more familiar to American readers of fifteen years ago than to those of to-day. The title of the work, which has long been in preparation, is as follows: "The Basic Outline of Universology: An Introduction to the Newly-discovered Science of the Universe; its Elementary Principles, and the Stages of their Development in the Special Sciences; together with Preliminary Notices of Alwato, the Newly-discovered Scientific Universal Language, resulting from the Principles of Universology, by Stephen Pearl Andrews." In further description of the work it is said to be "Revelation through Science;" or the "Philosophy of Integralism;" or the "Advent of the Reconciliative Harmony of Ideas;" and it is promised that there shall be "Eighty Illustrative Diagrams."—Messrs. J. W. Schermerhorn & Co. announce for the first of March the second volume of their "Library of Education," a 32mo series, patterned closely in style after the Paris "Bibliothèque nationale," and, like that, cheap and handy for the pocket. Volume I. has already appeared and contains the greater part of Locke's "Thoughts concerning Education." The remainder of this work and a treatise by Milton, with lives of both authors, will form Volume II. The third volume will contain one of the famous "Reports" by Horace Mann, and there will be, if the series meets with favor, a monthly issue in the same line of subjects, though with a very wide range of selection. The volumes are bound in paper, making from 150 to 200 pages, and are sold at 15 cents in this city, or 20 cents when ordered through the mail.—Mr. Henry Carey Baird announces a number of technical works—on the making of liquors, vinegar, ropes, cement, soaps of all sorts, saws, etc.—to but one of which need we call the attention of the general reader, namely, "A Book of Designs for Headstones and Mural and other Monuments."—Mr. Mansfield T. Walworth is the author of "Stormcliff" and one or two other novels which have met with more or less acceptance, and which, though they may be described as rather heavy reading, are not on the very lowest range of novel-writing; he will now publish, through Mr. G. W. Carleton, a new story with the title of "Warwick, or the Lost Nationalities of America."—Messrs. G. P. Putnam & Son have in press "The Life and Journals of John James Audubon." The naturalist's widow is the editor.—Mr. Patrick Donahoe announces several novels of William Carleton's, who, by the way, is now dead indeed; when we announced his death a few weeks ago he was still living, and in fact was threatening to bring a libel suit against an editor who in an obituary notice of him had spoken of him as intemperate. The titles of the books announced are: "Willy Reilly and his Dear Colleen Bawn;" "Evil Eye;" "Parra Gastha, or the History of Paddy Go-easy;" "The Black Baronet;" and "Redmond, Count O'Hanlon, the Irish Rapparee."

—The American Social Science Association has just been holding a session at Albany, evidently very much to its own satisfaction—for the Albanians, with General J. Meredith Read at the head of them, dispensed old-fashioned hospitality—and also a good deal to the satisfaction of those who heard the papers read or have seen a good report of them. A very good report we have not seen in any journal, though most of the important ones seem to have had a reporter there. But the fact is, we suppose, that the average reporter, accustomed to the whirl of nervous excitement which the political convention and mass-meeting furnish, is so far demoralized by his dissipations that his attention cannot but wander when the sober proceedings of a serious gathering are all there is to occupy it. The proceedings of this particular meeting were, however, interesting and very well worth attention. It is a reproach brought in England against such convocations that their papers all have an air of being rejected contributions to the popularized-science magazines, or attempts at padding for the heavier reviews. They are sciolistic without being at all light reading, and are profoundly dry without having a vestige of any other profundity than that of their dryness. It is not always that our American Association has been free from the suspicion of similar shortcomings. But of this particular meeting it is noticeably true to say that there was hardly one of the persons who undertook to instruct it who was not a specialist, hardly one, indeed, who may not be called an expert, as regards the matter of which he talked. Mr. Goldwin Smith knows "University Education;" Doctor Samuel Eliot knows "The Value of the Higher Education;" Mr. F. B. Sanborn, the long-time secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Charities, is certainly very well informed as regards "Public Charities;" Mr. C. L. Brace, who has been for years practically engaged in the investigation and in the amelioration of the condition of the poor of New York, understands the nature of "Model Lodging-Houses," and something of the same kind may be said of Dr. Griscom and "Ventilation," Mr. Charles Francis Adams the younger and "The Protection of the Ballot," and Mr. J. S. Gould and "The Cattle Disease." Mr.

Greeley, too, understands very well the subject of "Corruption in Public Offices," on which he was announced to speak; but rather unfortunately he devoted himself to urging on the attention of his auditors the advisability of a scheme he has of circulating small tracts, of the probable value of ten cents at retail, among people intending to build houses, and of giving to a series of such tracts the Association's guarantee. Each tract he would have filled with good advice as to choice of materials or of situation and so on. The Association adjourned without taking any action on this proposition. No doubt the general public will hereafter have an opportunity to read in some of the reviews the more valuable of these essays.

—That was not an omission in the Constitution which our Senators undertook to repair when they voted to prohibit educational tests for suffrage and office-holding; but a part of the unwritten Constitution which existed before the Union not less than did the principles of equal rights and of self-government. The common-school system which New England has bequeathed to the whole country has no other philosophy than that general intelligence—and the higher the better—is necessary to produce good citizens, good legislators, and good rulers. Of the North, at least, this may be called a fundamental law, and it was this which Senator Wilson outraged—unintentionally, we are sure, and without due reflection—when he moved and carried his fortunately ill-fated amendment. It is impossible not to infer from this attempt some weakening of the popular belief in education, and that we do not owe this to the vast foreign immigration of late years is apparent to any one who compares the educational condition of the West with that of the East. The last testimony on this point which we have seen is the first annual report of the present Superintendent of Common Schools in Maine, Mr. Warren Johnson, which we can praise as one of the most intelligent and readable documents of the kind we have ever examined. Maine makes a poor show for a New England State, being second even to Connecticut. A comparison of the years 1867–1868 with 1857–1858 shows the whole number of scholars (children of school age) between 4 and 21 to have fallen off fifteen thousand in the last decade; the whole number of registered scholars from twenty to thirty thousand; and, as we remarked last fall, when commenting on the September election, in spite of the unprecedented size of the vote then cast, the population of Maine is evidently not increasing. The superintendent enumerates the indications, not peculiar to his State, of a decline or, which is the same thing, stagnation in the public interest in the schools, and of the inability of the country to keep up with the cities and large towns in progressive improvement. As yet the normal schools have failed to make much impression on the rural districts, their missionary field *par excellence*.

—We spoke some little time since of *Sabin and Sons' American Bibliopolist*, and refer to it again for a special and for general reasons. In this second number is begun the republication of all those portions of the *English Notes and Queries* which relate in any way to American subjects. This the publishers do partly because of the intrinsic interest of the articles—there is, for example, a full and learned discussion of Madoc's more or less mythic voyage to America, and of the probability of there being or having been Welsh Indians—and partly with a view of getting additional information on the topics that are treated of in *Notes and Queries*. Mr. Sabin himself, in the number before us, makes a valuable bibliographical note in reply to a querist who desired to know something of a book with the following title: "Evangelium Regni: A Joyful Message of the Kingdom published by the Holy Spirit of the love of Jesu Christ." Besides this new feature, the lover of books, and the book-buyer, and the beginner in bibliographical learning will find in the *Bibliopolist* much that is instructive and very useful as well as entertaining. For example, we have here among us in the United States some sharp book-buyers who know what they are doing and are never made the victims of booksellers; but we have, too, a good many collectors of libraries—more perhaps than any other country—who have more willingness to buy than knowledge of the worth of what is bought. This latter class will find Mr. Sabin's work valuable as a corrective of catalogues—upon which he now and again discourses with the sort of subacidity which is commoner among persons of extremely minute and exact knowledge than among other men in presence of ignorance, and commonest, perhaps, among persons whose exact knowledge is of some branch of learning of the kinds that the stupid world looks on as worthless. It generally is a "pleasant sour," however, and in this case it is not at all disagreeable. The publisher's general design is to give hints in regard to the best editions and to keep his readers well informed of new publications, English and American; to tell prices got at sales; to print a list of books wanted, and to discuss all matters pertaining to books. It seems desirable that as many book-buyers and readers as possible should send in their subscriptions—a dollar a year—to keep this work on foot.

—We have received from a correspondent in Berlin a letter concerning the Vermont pond which was christened Lana Water in honor of General Wool. "Lama" Water, by the way, instead of Lana Water, is what we called it in the article on "Town Nomenclature" which we published in the *Nation* of the 17th of December. General Wool, at a date not mentioned, was visiting the Green Mountains, and a number of friends and acquaintances of his, among whom was our correspondent, invited him to "make a day of it" with them. It appears that in Vermont this is done in retired places. It was, at all events, on this occasion; the party went into the hills, and after boating across what was then known as Sucker Pond, they reached a high shoulder where was a beautiful basin into and out of which poured a pure cold stream. It was resolved, if we make out our correspondent's meaning, to christen or rechristen the pond to which this stream with its basin is tributary; "the baptismal *eau-de-vie* was therefore made ready," and it remained only to find a name. "Woolly Lake" would not do, evidently. Our correspondent bethought himself to ask the general how it was that the Mexicans named him at Saltillo. They translated his name it seems, and called him "El General Lana," so "Lana Water" became the formal name of the lake—which we fear the neighboring "liberal shepherds give the grosser name" by which their fathers knew it. "Sucker," by the way, is the name given in New England to a sort of fish (of the genus *catastomus*?) which the boys kill with sticks as they ascend the shallow streams, and which are afterwards given to pigs. In other parts of the United States they are used as food for man, but are tasteless and nearly worthless, and of repulsive appearance.

—An exchange newspaper suggests that we were perhaps lately in error in printing the Spanish name for the declaration that commonly precedes Spanish or Spanish-American revolutions—*pronunciamiento*—without the second *i*. We may explain that we did so not in ignorance of the original orthography, nor merely in accordance with newspaper practice, but because Worcester, whose spelling we prefer to Webster's, gives only "pronunciamiento," and regards it as no longer foreign, but fairly naturalized. There are also many good reasons why the *i* may be dropped: one is, that the Spaniards themselves drop it in certain cases, and say, for example, either *partimento* or *partimiento*. Though the latter ending is much the more common in Spanish nouns, and has primarily a strongly marked participial sense, it is identical with the former in derivation (Lat. *mentum*), and generally comes at last to mean the same thing. We see this in such words as *atrincheramiento*, *alistamiento*, when compared with their English equivalents, *entrenchment* and *enlistment*; so likewise in *movimiento* (Lat. *momentum* from *movimentum*). The Anglicized form of *pronunciamiento* would be *pronouncement*, like *announcement*. The Italians, for their part, omit *i* in the word in question, writing *pronunciamiento*; just as they write *manifesto*, where the Spaniards use *manifiesto*. In this last instance we follow the Italians, partly because the *i* is peculiar to the euphony of the Spanish language, and partly because we get so much nearer to the parent Latin—the same reasons, by the way, which induce us to reject the French *u* in *façour*, *labour*, and the like. As regards our using *pronunciamiento* in the sense of a revolt, to which the same paper takes exception, our case is at least equally strong, since we are sustained not only by English but by universal usage, Spanish not excepted. A German writer, for instance, would not hesitate to say: "Barcelona hat *pronunciert*."—Barcelona has revolted. There is, of course, nothing extraordinary in this extension of meaning from abstract to concrete, from cause to effect. Almost all nouns in *miento* exhibit it, and that the tendency is a natural one, every language will prove by copious examples. Our word *demonstration* offers a very close analogy to *pronunciamiento*.

—We have received *via* England a circular of peculiar interest to Americans, or, if we may indulge a local metonymy, to Cortlandt Street. It announces an international exhibition at Utrecht, at which it will be our own fault if we do not easily take most of the prizes. The management is in the hands of the Society for the Encouragement of Manufactures and Manufacturing Industry in the Netherlands, which has fixed upon the period from Aug. 15 to Sept. 30 of the present year as the term of the show. Goods will be received for it only in the latter half of July, and the kinds desired are "such articles of household use, furniture, dress, food, work, and instruction of different countries, as at a low price combine usefulness with solidity, so that [the workman] may be enabled by judicious economy to improve his condition." Articles of pure luxury and elegance will be out of place. Seven classes are enumerated: (1) Houses, etc., (2) household necessities, (3) clothing, (4) food, (5) workmen's and gardeners' tools, (6) means of moral, intellectual, and bodily development, (7) reports, statutes, regulations of different associations for promoting the well-being of the working classes. The first and last of these appear to us the only ones

in which America cannot shine, but to take five-sevenths of the awards would be an advertisement worth investing in. We cannot go into the particulars of shipment, insurance, etc., which are regulated in the circular before us with a good deal of strictness, except to quote Article 5, which runs as follows:

"The committee of management has the right not only to sell the articles exhibited at the price indicated, but also to order others of the same sort at the same price during the exhibition. The exhibitor who does not fulfil such order loses all claim to the medal, honorable mention, etc. The proceeds of articles sold, after deducting charges, will be remitted to the exhibitors at the expense of the latter."

Those who wish further information had best address either Dr. J. Th. Mouton, Secretary and Correspondent, Spuistraat, 28, The Hague, or Mr. J. J. Metelerkamp, 1116 Bregttestraat, Utrecht. The former is of the central committee, the latter of the committee of management.

—An antidote to M. Quinet's extravaganza of science noticed in the *Nation* of January 7 (p. 11) may be found in Dr. Pfaff's sober little book: "Die neuesten Forschungen und Theorien auf dem Gebiete der Schöpfungsgeschichte," published by Heyder & Zimmer at Frankfurt-on-the-Main. It is divided into three chapters, of which the first shows the result of spectral analysis in determining the constitution of the sun, the fixed stars, and the planetary bodies in general, argues against the theory that the sun is a dark, cold body surrounded by a photosphere, and adopts the hypothesis of Kirchhoff that it is in a glowing state and that the spots are heavy masses of clouds. In this connection Professor Pfaff refers to the photometric researches of Seidel and Zöllner, who distinguish five phases of cosmogonical evolution: 1, a glowing gaseous state like that of planetary nebulae; 2, a glowing, fluid state like that of the fixed stars; 3, a slaggy state like that of many red stars; 4, an eruptive state like that of flashing or twinkling stars; 5, a completely cool and solidified state like that of the earth. The author concludes this section of his work with a discussion of the various theories that have been advanced concerning nebulae, comets, meteors, and shooting-stars (*Sternschnuppen*). Chapter ii. considers the question of the age of the human race, fixing it at "not over 7,000 years"—a conclusion which, we think, will not be endorsed by the majority of scientific men at the present day. Even Lyell, who is by no means prone to rash speculations or random assertions on such subjects, suggests 224,000 years as the probable age of the human family. Chapter iii. endeavors to show what race of men first inhabited Europe, or rather states that there are no data sufficient to determine it, although craniology proves them to have been of the Caucasian race. Dr. Pfaff has no sympathy with the ethnologists who regard the primitive man as more nearly allied to the ape than to the developed man of to-day. His polemic against Darwin, Huxley, and Vogt is especially earnest, and, although not conclusive as a refutation, may serve as a salutary check on the enthusiasm and frequent fanaticism of the new school of scientific observers and theorizers. The work is illustrated with woodcuts.

—The question of the kinship of man with the monkey, which Dr. Pfaff merely touches upon in the concluding chapter of his "Researches," is fully treated by Dr. Bischoff in his recent volume, "Die Grosshirnwindungen der Menschen." This study of the brains of men and apes in all stages of cerebral growth from the fetus to the fully developed being is exceedingly thorough. Two circumstances, however, one affecting the author's mind and the other affecting his materials, tend to vitiate the results of his investigations: 1, He is haunted by the spectre of Darwinism, and seems resolved to lay his spirit at all hazards; consequently, he emphasizes the points of difference between brains of men and those of apes, but fails to note the points of resemblance, so that what should be a strictly scientific argument degenerates into a special plea. 2, The specimens of brains which he examined were preserved some in chloride of zinc, others in alcohol, whilst others were studied in wax impressions or plaster casts. The danger of false deductions from such heterogeneous data is evident, however great care may have been taken to avoid incorrect conclusions, since the source of error lies beyond the author's control. Dr. Bischoff discovered the nearest resemblance between the cerebral convolutions of the adult orang-outang and those of the eight months' fetus. He does not appear to have compared the brains of young apes with those of children, where the similarity is said to be much greater than between grown apes and men. Indeed, the rotund cranial development and frontal elevation of the orang-outang in early youth indicate a mental power very little inferior to that of the human infant. These marks of intellectuality in the brute animal disappear with advancing age. Dr. Bischoff's book is rendered additionally attractive by a series of plates.

—A valuable contribution to our knowledge of Grecian culture and the

influence of Grecian ideas since the revival of letters, comes to us from the press of Constantinople under the title of "A Sketch (Σχέδιασμα) of the condition of literature among the Greek people from the fall of Constantinople (1453) to the beginning of the present century." The author (M.K. Paraniakis) is professor in a theological school situated at Chalki, one of the largest of the Princes' Islands in the Sea of Marmora. The word γράμματα (which we have translated literature) he uses not in the restricted meaning of *belles-lettres*, but in the broader signification (sometimes given to it by Plato) of learning, and thus includes in his "Sketch" an account of educational institutions, distinguished teachers and other men of taste and culture, laity and clergy, libraries, printing-presses, and all the appliances that have aided in disseminating Greek thought and in building up Greek civilization. We have full descriptions of the Greek schools in Constantinople, Turkey in Europe and Asia, Egypt, the Isles of Greece, the Greek colonies of the West, Russia and the Danubian Principalities; nor are the calligraphers (καλλιγράφοι) forgotten who lived in Rome and the other cities of Italy, and put posterity under a debt of eternal gratitude by their beautiful and accurate transcriptions of ancient manuscripts. The zeal of the Greek clergy in promoting classic as well as ecclesiastic erudition, as portrayed by our author, leaves upon the reader's mind a far more favorable impression of them than is generally current among scholars.

MR. C. W. DILKE ON AMERICA.*

SOME three or four years ago Mr. Tuckerman compiled a book called "America and her Commentators," which gave but a melancholy picture of the foreign tourist in this country. Quite a number of the traits of character which degrade humanity to the level of the brutes he seemed to have possessed in full measure; falsehood, it appeared, was his natural way of speech; he was insolent to a degree; he rabidly hated free institutions; he would have overthrown this Government if he could, and so far as shameless perversions of the truth could injure the Government or the people, it was shown to have been his delight to invent and disseminate such perversions. We are mistaken if the public much enjoyed this compilation. The whole subject had a look of unprofitableness and seemed to belong to a past generation. However that may be, should anybody undertake to prepare a sequel to it the portrait of our new traveller would not be of so shocking a kind; it would, in fact, be rather an engaging picture. Since 1863 or 1864, or thereabouts, we have been visited by a good many people from abroad, and it is quite remarkable what a contrast, as respects its general tone, there is between the tourist literature on the far side of a line drawn, say, at 1863 and that which is on this side of such a boundary. Most of the late books of travel are as rosy and kind as the earlier ones were spiteful and full of the gloomiest forebodings. Mr. Kennaway, Lord Hartington, Mr. Hepworth Dixon, Mr. Fraser, Miss Jex Blake, M. Laugel, Mr. Goldwin Smith, Mr. Maguire, Mr. Newman Hall, Mr. Zincke, Mr. Dilke, and Mr. Rose have all taken a run through the States lately, and written about us, and we have had remarks, too, from Mr. Dickens and Professor Pearson, Mr. Anthony Trollope, Mr. Leslie Stephen, and Mr. Louis Jennings; and except Mr. Rose—who had a very discouraging "time," as we say, with his humorous entertainment—we believe they all have said a great deal more good than harm about us. Of course account is to be taken of the natural differences of opinion as to North and South which have prompted these English people to more or less sharp speaking in behalf of the one or the other side; it is speaking in strict accordance with the truth to say that they as naturally took sides as we; the way in which England fought for and against the United States Government is a better proof of the real unity of the two peoples than the "Shakespeare and Milton" and "common language" proof which is mentioned sometimes at "banquets." But though there is, for example, some anti-Northern talk in what Mr. Trollope has lately been saying about us, and some anti-Southern talk in what Mr. Smith has said, that is a very different affair from the real old anti-American talk that we used to hear in the days of Mr. Tuckerman's wicked and unreliable tourist. Though, for that matter, we are all agreed, too, that he was not in all respects so entirely unreliable as he might have been and as we used to swear bitterly that he was. There *was* a Mrs. Hominy and there was a Mr. Pogrom—or, at any rate, dreadful shapes not so very distantly resembling them—we may as well confess; and there was not much need, after all, of Mr. Dickens's apology for depicting them. It is not merely to our war, or rather it is not merely to the fortunate result of our war, that we are to attribute the increased civility of English critics of America. The

* "Greater Britain: A Record of Travel in English-speaking Countries during 1866-7. By Charles Wentworth Dilke. With maps and illustrations." Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.; London: Macmillan & Co. 1869.

war elevated the national character, proved true our former estimate of ourselves—which of course we had no right to ask other people to accept until the proof of its correctness was made—and thus, in a way more honorable to them than if our mere success had dazzled them, the war is a cause of the truer views and judgments of America now obtaining among the English. Besides this, the English are in the beginning of troubles, political and social, which make the Englishman of to-day, more especially the contemporary Englishman in the presence of American democratic institutions, quite a different gentleman from him who in the Waterloo period walked about the world as if he owned it, and simply laughed if told that England, social and political, was not fixed for ever. Then of course, besides a real change that has taken place in us, and a real change in the direction of humility that has taken place in him, and a fear of change that tends to keep him humble, there *is*, no doubt, a good deal in him of the mean respect for mere strength; only it is not to this last fact that we should wholly attribute the alteration in his attitude.

Of the good-nature and respectfulness of the latest contribution to foreign criticism of America, Mr. Charles Dilke's "Greater Britain," there is certainly no reason why any American should complain. Not that Yankees need make special acknowledgments to him for the complimentary title of his book. He set out to follow the English-speaking race around the world, and of the Britain greater than Great Britain, which he found after he had left London, he found a part in Australia, a part in India, a part in New Zealand, a part in the Canadas, and only a part in the United States. Still, the most ardent of that class of lovers of our country who may be called superficial patriots, or superficial-area patriots, who love their country the more there is of her to love, need not quarrel with him for not bestowing on us alone the whole of the larger name. He expresses a very full and satisfactory belief in the future immense strength, power, and grandeur of the people which now owns, and hereafter is to occupy, the Mississippi Valley and the boundless West; he sees that it is understood that—at a time not as yet fixed, to be sure—it is intended to absorb Mexico; he practically counsels England, as Mr. Medill, of Chicago, has counselled her, to "back out" and leave the Canadas to obey the law of political gravitation which eventually will make them so many States in the Union. In speaking of the Provinces, Mr. Dilke says a good deal that may properly be heeded by persons in authority on the other side of the water. They are, after all, most interested; and a hope that what he says may be heeded by persons in authority in the Provinces, is one that will not be entertained by anybody who is at all acquainted with what are called the upper classes of Provincial society. We may remark that, though Mr. Dilke evidently has his own opinion as to the political wisdom of the colonial governments, he seems to be not fully aware of the fact—as we take it to be—that the people of the Provinces—the great mass of the population as distinguished from that portion of it which is "a bad caricature of the worst features of English gentility"—are at bottom far from being unfavorably affected toward the United States, and far from being hopelessly in love with their present rulers. For a variety of reasons not many English visitors to the Provinces are able to note this. Americans, however, who know with what inevitableness we drain the Canadas of their immigrants and the maritime Provinces of their young men, who listen not so much for what is said by officials as for the opinions of the average Nova Scotian or New Brunswicker, have latterly been able easily to exercise patience as regards that "annexation of Canada" for the sake of which our fathers used sometimes to talk of going to war; and now, whatever might happen after war was once begun, it is only a Fenian, and here and there one American, who would think of beginning a war for the purpose of getting British America.

Of those chapters of Mr. Dilke's book in which he treats of India, New Zealand, and Australia we feel neither competency nor inclination to speak. They may be read, we should say, with this much of satisfaction: we may be fully sure that we are getting from them the views and opinions of one of the Advanced Liberals in regard to the proper policy for England to pursue in India and the colonies, in regard to the prospects and deserts of democracy in Australia, and in regard to several other similar subjects. But after reading what our author has written about matters of which we know something ourselves, we care but little, we find, for what he has to say about other things, and we are afraid to advise any one to put much reliance on what he offers as facts concerning any of the countries or peoples he has seen. Turn to the seventh page of the volume and we come on this bit of statement and accompanying philosophy. The author is in Virginia: "Where slavery exists, the 'poor trash' class must inevitably be both large and wretched; primogeniture is necessary to keep the plantations sufficiently great to allow for the payment of overseers and the supporting in luxury

of the planter's family; and younger sons and their descendants are not only left destitute, but debarred from earning their bread by honest industry." This sounds very much like the slapdash talk of a traveller more desirous of appearing to know something of the country he has been in than solicitous to learn the truth. It must have been an exceptionally humorous member of the "poor trash" class who ever informed Mr. Dilke that his "low down" condition was due to any law or custom of primogeniture that ever prevailed in any part of the South. Again, payment of overseers—unless what some of them stole is counted as a part of their wages—was never a considerable item in the expenditure of any plantation. An "overlooker" was sometimes a gentleman, as gentlemen go in the South, and got a respectable income for his services in keeping an eye on perhaps two or three or half a dozen plantations, each of which individually was under the closer supervision or the immediate management of a white overseer on wages of a few hundreds of dollars a year, or of a colored "driver" at nothing a year; but the true "overseer" was a person whose charges never assisted in making his employer's family "poor trash." Almost always he was as really a servant in the matter of wages as an inferior in the matter of estimation. On this same seventh page at which we have chanced to set the book open we find this passage, which it will be seen is put forth with every appearance on the author's part of being well informed; and yet there is nobody who knows the South at all who says such things as some of these: "The Southern planters were gentlemen possessed of many aristocratic virtues along with every aristocratic vice; but to each planter there were nine 'mean whites' who, though grossly ignorant, full of insolence, given to the use of the knife and the pistol upon the slightest provocation, were until the election of Lincoln as completely the rulers of America as they were afterwards the leaders of the rebellion." They may have been as much, but certainly the mean whites were not any more "the rulers of America" before Lincoln's time than they were afterwards "the leaders of the rebellion." Louis Napoleon's secret police are the Emperor and Empress of the French and the founders of the Second Empire in the same sense in which the lower classes of the Southern people were ever "the South" of our older politics or "the Confederacy" of our politics of five years ago. We should not comment on these examples of wildness of assertion if they were of rare occurrence, but they are so frequent that hardly half a dozen pages together are to be found in any part of the American chapters without more than one of them, and they make it difficult to give any credit to any part of the work. How, for instance, does a man riding by rail between Richmond and Petersburg see "from the windows of the car that in the country there were left no mules, no horses, no roads, no men?" It was a fact, as Mr. Dilke probably heard before leaving home, that the war had made mules and horses scarce in Virginia; but it is not a fact that one could very well learn by looking from the windows of a railroad car, and it was not so, we make bold to say, that Mr. Dilke learned it. This may be but a small thing; but no traveller has a right to ask for our confidence, and none can get it, who shows himself willing to write down as true, things that have no existence. Why may not any Harvard man hold himself excused from troubling himself about Mr. Dilke's remarks in general when he finds him saying this of the University—where, by the way, he had ample leisure for making the acquaintance of the things about which he had decided to talk: "Her conservatism is shown in many trivial things—in the dress of her janitors and porters, in the cut of the grass plots and college gates," etc., etc. We were going to say that her porters and janitors are not dressed at all, and that she has no gates, but affects breaks-in-the-fence with posts in them. There is, however, one gate, we believe—an iron one which may perhaps be as ancient as 1845, or 1855. As for the porters and janitors—if indeed there is any porter, and if there are more janitors than one—they wear as many, or as few, and what garments they please, unmolested by any of the college authorities, so far as we have ever heard.

As we have said, the reader may get from this volume the opinions on several topics of an Advanced Liberal—or probably we should do better to say "of the Advanced Liberals," Mr. Dilke's opinions being perhaps, first, the opinions of the set to which he belongs, and then, secondly, his own; being, at all events, more important as the opinions of a certain school in English politics than as any single person's notions. Furthermore, whoever is interested in hearing the latest word of news from the Australasian and Asiatic Anglo-Saxon communities may read the book with some pleasure. But on the whole it seems to us one of those books which, like an ill-prepared dictionary, contains a deal that is good, but is to be looked at with decided distrust, and is only to be used by persons able to correct its blunders.

THE LATE GERMAN WAR IN LITERATURE.*

No series of public events ever produced in so short a time such a rich and voluminous literature as the German war of 1866. As early as July 1, 1867, Mühlbrecht's special catalogue, issued at Prague, contained the titles of fifteen hundred works, comprising poems, romances, pamphlets, addresses, orations, sermons, essays, diaries, histories, biographies, strategic treatises, maps, charts, photographic and lithographic collections, etc., each designed to illustrate some particular phase of the subject. Within less than a year after the armistice of Nikolsburg, there appeared sixteen biographies of King William and fifteen of Count Bismarck, besides several quite elaborate sketches of less prominent soldiers and diplomatists, one hundred and thirty-five histories of Prussia, one hundred and twenty-nine of Italy, seventy-four of Austria, forty-one of France, twenty-three of Schleswig-Holstein, eighteen of Venice, fifteen of South Germany, of Holland the same number, of Luxembourg twelve, of Hungary, Frankfurt, Denmark, and the German Confederacy nine each, of Mecklenburg seven, and from one to five of such minor states and municipalities as Würtemberg, Hesse-Cassel, Nassau, Hamburg, Belgium, Tyrol, Switzerland, Hesse-Darmstadt, Lübeck, and Coburg; and in addition to these books of biography and history, about forty volumes of military maps, topographical charts, and engravings, all of which were elicited by the war and designed to elucidate it. Since the publication of the above-mentioned catalogue, the press of Germany has been pouring forth works of this class in a steady, though diminished stream, so that their number at the present time probably exceeds three thousand. Out of such a mass of literary material, much of which has a merely ephemeral interest, it is always difficult for the American reader to select, even with the aid of an ordinary *catalogue raisonné*, the few books which would possess for him an intrinsic and permanent value; and it is with the desire of helping him in this task that we call his attention to two recent works whose titles stand at the head of the present article.

The substance of Herr Blankenburg's volume appeared originally in "Unsere Zeit," a sort of serial dictionary or lexicographical review of contemporary events, published by Brockhaus at Leipzig. It is not, however, a mere reprint of those essays, inasmuch as the author has subjected them to a thorough revision and an artistic recasting into book-form, adding at the same time new matter of considerable importance. In the introduction he discusses the philosophy of war in general, which he considers as inevitable and beneficial in the economy of states as tempests and earthquakes are in the economy of nature. Here, however, he makes a distinction between *Cabinetskriege* and *Volkskriege*; the former depending upon the caprice of diplomacy and having only individual or dynastic ends in view, whilst the latter are waged in defence of great national interests and spring from profound moral causes. People and states which are conscious of their mission as civilizing forces in the world are not only permitted but also impelled, according to Blankenburg, to use war as one of the "positive means" in fulfilling their historic destiny; it is a crucial test of their right to political existence and of the validity of the claims which they make on the future; he has no sympathy with "the doctrine of the weak-hearted philanthropists of our day who justify war only for defensive purposes." It is also characteristic of a "people's war" that it never stops short of the end for which it was begun, whereas a "cabinet's war" usually contents itself with partial success and terminates in a compromise. In this connection our author lays down the principle that no government has a moral right to go to war, except with the determination to "fight it out completely;" and that the victorious army which rests satisfied with anything less than the "entire subjection of the enemy" is guilty of a crime against humanity. The decisive battle of Waterloo, which gave to Europe half a century of peace, and the unconditional surrender of Lee at Richmond, which settled for ever the question of State-rights and the political theory of secession in our own country, are cited as examples of *Normalschlachten*. The Crimean war and the Italian war of 1859, on the contrary, are declared to have been a useless waste of blood and treasure, inasmuch as they were not carried out to a logical conclusion, but were arrested by premature treaties of peace involving "the necessity of new conflicts for the decision of the pending controversies." The more energetically a war is conducted, the less danger there is of foreign intervention. "*Je ne veux pas m'allier avec un cadavre*," is said to have been the reply of Napoleon III., when advised to form an alliance with Austria after the crushing defeat of the latter at Königgrätz. No

government voluntarily practises upon itself as a political policy the *genus tormenti* which Virgil represents the tyrant Mezentius as inflicting penally upon his subjects.

After this ingenious and suggestive but not altogether satisfactory justification of war, we have more than a hundred and thirty pages devoted to a history of the causes which led to the events of 1866. The first chapter treats of the religious and political differences between Austria and Prussia, their rivalry and mutual hostility from the time of Frederic the Great to the convention of Gastein, including an account of the Danish war of 1864 and the manner in which it affected the European position of each of the allied powers. The second chapter traces the origin and final solution of the Schleswig-Holstein question and its bearings upon the affairs of Germany, the foreign and domestic politics of Count Bismarck, his defiant attitude and arbitrary measures towards the opposition in the Berlin chamber of deputies, his despatches and diplomatic passage at arms with Count Mensdorff concerning the menacing character of Austria's military preparations, the alliance between Prussia and Italy, the proposition of Austria in the Frankfurt Diet to mobilize the Federal contingents, and the withdrawal of Prussia from the Confederation in consequence of the adoption of this proposition by a majority of the plenipotentiaries. The third chapter begins with Austria's note of April 18, proposing a simultaneous disarmament, which Bismarck rejected as insincere, and narrates the history of the negotiations and conferences in Germany and the other European states till the formal declaration of hostilities towards the latter part of June.

In the "Second Section" of his volume the author gives a concise but sufficiently comprehensive statement of the forces engaged in the conflict, the financial condition, wealth and natural resources, state of culture, military organization and discipline, and physical configuration of each country, everything, in short, that contributed to the relative strength or weakness of the two nations; he then describes in detail the several engagements and series of operations of the different armies till the armistice of Nikolsburg and the peace of Prague, illustrating the text by excellent maps of the various theatres of the war in Bohemia, Moravia, Lower Austria, Middle and West Germany, and on the Tauber and the Main, besides eight plans of battles. In a strategic point of view, Austria's geographical position was extremely favorable to purely defensive warfare, especially with Saxony, Bavaria, and Hanover as her allies. This fact must be taken into account in order to appreciate fully the achievements of Prussia. But neither this vantage-ground of Austria nor the numerical superiority of her army could atone for the demoralization of her troops, particularly the absence in the newly-recruited infantry of that *esprit du corps* and delicate sense of honor which make the veteran soldier feel a stain on his ensign as keenly as a wound in his own flesh, and the incompetency of her officers of every grade from Field-Marshal Benedek down to the lowest subaltern. Those who imagine that partisan prejudice or national pride may have led the author to exaggerate the deficiencies of the Austrian service in organization, tactics, and generalship, are referred to the anonymous work of "an Austrian Soldier," published at Leipzig in 1866 and entitled "Oesterreichs System als die einzig wahre Ursache seiner Niederlage vom militärischen Standpunkt aus," in which these evils are painted in still darker colors and traced to their real source in the pedantry that sacrifices individual intelligence to automatic precision of drill, and in the fatal system whereby promotions are regulated not by talent or military knowledge but by birth or by wealth. There is no doubt that the rapid and complete success of Prussia was due less to the needle-gun than to the character of the man who stood behind the needle-gun. The elements which contribute to victory in every war are three-fourths moral and only one-fourth material. If the Austrians and the Prussians had exchanged weapons, we have every reason to believe that the results of the conflict would remain the same, unless, indeed, the exchange should in some way affect the *morale* of the combatants. At Magenta and Solferino the Austrians were better armed than the French, but the latter *did not know it, and won the day*. It is moral and intellectual force that conquers; not the talismanic influence of red shirts and breech loaders, but a clear comprehension of the thing to be done and courageous fidelity in doing it. A very instructive portion of Blankenburg's volume is the *Anhang* of sixty-six pages bearing the title "Prussia in Arms," in which he gives a sketch of the origin and growth of the Prussian military system during the last three centuries, and especially the transformations which it has undergone and the more and more democratic character which it has assumed since the disaster of Jena and the peace of Tilsit.

Of Dragomirow's "Epitome of the Austro-Prussian War" we can say only a few words, by no means commensurate with its worth. The author of this succinct and valuable monograph is colonel in the Russian army

* "Der deutsche Krieg von 1866. Historisch, politisch und kriegswissenschaftlich dargestellt. Von Heinrich Blankenburg." Mit Karten und Plänen. Leipzig: F. A. Brockhaus. 1868. 8vo, pp. xii., 653.

* Abriss des österreichisch-preussischen Krieges im Jahre 1866. Von M. Dragomirow. Berlin: A. Bath. 1868. 8vo, pp. 274.

and also professor in the Nicholas Military Academy. His book is not only a history but also a thorough and impartial critique, and thus furnishes an admirable supplement to Blankenburg's larger and more strictly narrative work. Its merits in this respect are so obvious that it was translated from the original Russian into German soon after its publication, notwithstanding the multitude of volumes which had already appeared on the same subject. The descriptions of battles are brief, graphic, and easily intelligible even to the civilian, although the entire absence of maps and plans is a serious defect. Unfortunately, too, the "Epitome" has neither table of contents nor index. It is no small advantage to the foreign reader that Professor Dragomirov writes from a non-German stand-point, and therefore notices many interesting peculiarities of both the Austrian and the Prussian tactics which to a German author would not seem sufficiently striking to be worthy of mention, and also draws parallels between them and the instructions of the Russian army, particularly the methods of Suvaroff. His sketches of the principal generals of each army are sharply drawn, and their prominent characteristics stand out in bold relief. Benedek's weakness was the want of preliminary culture and theoretical knowledge, for which no personal energy or bravery or practical experience could compensate. The superficial qualities that made him a brilliant corps commander at Solferino were not adequate to the strategic combinations of a great campaign. The man of "iron will" became under the weight of this responsibility strangely feeble and vacillating. The Prussian chief of staff, General Moltke, showed himself the antithesis of Benedek in all these respects. "Prince Frederic Charles," says our author, "belongs incontestably to the most eminent generals of the present day in Europe." In conclusion, we have several suggestive chapters on the strategic uses of railroads and telegraphs, and a *résumé* of the results of the German war of 1866 on the progress of military science.

World Pictures in Capitals. By E. T. Potter, architect; with a descriptive legend, by Henry Coppée. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1869.)—Mr. Potter is a New York architect who has set a good example to his fellow-artists in publishing, in the book before us, pictures of the carved capitals he has put up in a private house, where, of course, the public cannot see them. The book offers, on eight pages, forty photographs, of which eight represent the eight capitals at perhaps one-fifth of their actual size; and the others, four to a capital, give enlarged details of the ornament. The photographs are well made and show the capitals well; although, of course, it could be wished that one or more were shown in position, by which the relations of capital to shaft and to superincumbent weight could be judged. They are given to us here as if they were mantel ornaments, designed for no place in particular. It is much easier to photograph them so—that is, in the carver's shop, on a handy table and with lights arranged for them—than in their places in the building; but the inadequacy of the representation so obtained is not to be overlooked.

Next to sound, logical, and durable building, the rarest and most desirable thing in modern architecture is ornament designed for its place and expressive of something beyond tasteful selection and skilful adaptation of ancient types. It is probable that little good ornament can be designed—as, for instance, no good capital can be designed—without this selection and adaptation; but the *something beyond* the evidence of fresh and independent thought is what we ask for. We need it more than the people of better times than ours needed it; for our ornamental work, done in the usual way by the workmen who execute such things, is always both coarse and cold, and it needs something more than the avoidance by the designer of the worst vices of design to make his work assert itself as of another world, demanding attention to its meaning as a work of fine art. Simplicity and repose are noble, and without them good art does not exist; but they will not dissipate the cloud of our indifference to all art that addresses the eye. Independent thought may: designs with intellectual meaning in them run a chance of being looked at. Probably the artist may receive permission to address people's sense of the beautiful, if he address at the same time their memory, their power of association, and their traditional respect for external nature.

Therefore it is well imagined by Mr. Potter that his capitals should have stories to tell; each one its story. One capital is of India, the corners framed of clustered palms, the abacus ornamented on the four sides with elephants' heads, and each side showing a carving in relief of an Indian scene, framed, as it were, in the leaves of cotton and palm. Now, it is certainly rare in American art to see so many ideas in the same space. As expressive of a healthy modern spirit of enquiry and restlessness, and as indicative of worthy ambition in the artist, this whole enterprise deserves

attention and praise. The way the design is carried out is less admirable. The Corinthian capital is a thing of stone—or rather of marble; just so far as it is followed in these wood carvings, they are bad. But this fault, and the weak, semi-attached volutes, may be passed over in the general objectionableness of capitals made up of a score of pieces, some glued and some nailed, and designed without due reference to the material of which they are composed. It is not in this way that the wood-carvings are made of the artistic times and peoples. The art student of our time must go to Japan or India or the South Sea Islands if he wishes to learn how to carve in wood.

A Book about Dominies. Being the Reflections and Recollections of a Member of the Profession. (Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1869.)—On the whole, Mr. Hope's "Book about Dominies" seems to us to be preferred to its successor, the "Book about Boys." The two are so much alike in their style and matter that there is not much to choose between them, and readers who took pleasure in one will be like enough to find the other agreeable reading. The American publishers gave us Mr. Hope's second book first, and it was marked by a certain conceit as of a man who had been a little spoiled by meeting a favorable reception, which is less visible in his first essays. They are all more or less pervaded, however, by a slightly arrogant tone and a partisan fondness for long-held opinions and practices, rather on the ground that they are his own and have been long held than for any intrinsic value they may have. He has no faith, for instance, in the protest which is made against the practice of flogging in schools, and he has, of course, the right of one long accustomed to the ways of boys to state his contrary views and give his reasons therefor. But when he implies that one of the chief uses of "the tawse," or whatever other instrument is employed, is to teach boys to bear pain with fortitude; when he tells us how he loves to see little fellows in the play-ground thrashing each other with leather straps in order to anticipate and get used to their probable fate; when he compares his boys, rubbing their hands with rosin and nerving themselves to take their punishment without flinching or wry faces, to young Spartans, and finds them on the whole rather poor specimens of boys if they have not successfully tried to deserve the lash, he seems to have a not very valuable notion of the nature and ends of punishment. His faults, however, are chiefly faults which belong to him in virtue of his profession. A life-long teacher of boys who should be without arrogance, without conceit, without an impression that in order to make himself understood it is necessary to repeat himself emphatically and often, would present a very cheering example of man's ability to resist the natural influences of his surroundings. Mr. Hope's struggle against the tendencies of his profession has apparently not been very active, but he is, nevertheless, a lively and agreeable writer, who knows his subject and who, though his limitations are evident enough, can yet be read with pleasure and, as enforcing strongly the idea that the giving of instruction is not the only or the chief end of education, with not a little profit also.

Silver Threads. By Harriet B. McKeever, author of "Edith's Ministry," "Heavenward—Earthward," etc. (Philadelphia: Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger. 1868.)—Serious criticism on a book like this would be thrown away. As literature it has no existence, but for all that its probable destination is the Sunday-school libraries, where it will do its little part in injuring the children's tastes and filling their heads with false notions of life and virtue. Luckily it is not easy to make prodigies of infant pietism out of real flesh and blood, and the little girls who will be incited to uneasy emulation of the fabulous virtues of Daisy Gilbert are not likely to be very many. It is a pity, though, that false models should be set before them.

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Surplus, Jan. 1, 1869, 250,682 28

Total Assets, . . . \$650,682 28

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Choice of Varieties and Quality of Stock.

It should be borne in mind by those engaging in fruit-culture that, as a general rule, the cost of land, expense of preparation, planting, and all after attention are the same for inferior kinds and character of stock as for the best; while the earlier, more abundant, and superior yield of the best will very soon more than pay the difference of cost, and all after results will be every way more satisfactory. It is, therefore, good policy to plant none but the best varieties and the best quality of stock. Better plant less than depart from this rule.

GRAPES.

Notwithstanding a great reduction in price, we have continued to grow our vines with the same care as formerly, and offer our present stock with entire confidence that it will give satisfaction, both in quality and price.

Most of the varieties now offered are too well known to need any description.

The **Concord** continues to be the most popular grape in the country.

The **Ives** has lately received the Longworth prize, as the best wine grape for the whole country.

The **Hartford** and **Creveling** are the best very early grapes yet thoroughly tested.

The **Delaware** has generally done well the past two years, and will be largely planted this season.

The **Alvey** is a grape of great merit.

Many of **Rogers's Hybrids** have proved valuable. We can furnish vines—one, two, and three years old—of the above kinds in any quantity. Also **Iona**, **Israella**, **Adirondack**, **Elstingburg**, **Herbement**, **Rentz**, **Clinton**, **Union Village**, **Taylor**, etc., etc.

MARTHA (WHITE CONCORD) AND BLACK HAWK.

It is well known that we bought all the stock of these two varieties a few years ago from Mr. Miller, at a high price. If we had forced their propagation by green wood and other detrimental practices, we might previously have had a large supply of vines to offer. But we preferred to preserve their healthy constitution, and send them out in due time and in good condition, to establish their reputation as the

Best Two new Grapes now before the Public.

The **Martha** fills a want long felt for a first-class white grape. We subjoin a few testimonials of its merits, and might add many more:

"The most promising of all the new crops"
GEORGE HUEMANN.
"One of the finest grapes I have ever tasted."
THOMAS MERRAN.

"It will be found the most valuable white grape yet introduced, and is emphatically a grape for the people, as everybody that can grow a vine can have a beautiful white grape of the finest quality."
GEO. W. CAMPBELL.

"Taking hardiness, healthiness, and all other good qualities into consideration, I regard it as of more value than all the rest of the white grapes put together."
JOHN A. WARDER.

For full information in reference to this grape, also the **Black Hawk**, and many others, with reduced prices, see our Descriptive and Illustrated Catalogue and Price-list.

STRAWBERRIES.

We have given special attention the past season to the production of an immense stock of plants of all the leading varieties. Our experience has taught us that plants produced on clay soil are much preferable to those grown on sand. They are more stocky and vigorous, bear carriage and transplanting better, and give more satisfaction every way. All our plants are grown on clay soil with the greatest care, so as to secure a genuine article of the best quality.

JUCUNDA—Our No. 700.

This continues to be our greatest favorite. After the most thorough trial, we unhesitatingly say that, for

**Uniform and Large Size,
Beauty of Form and Color,
Enormous Yield,
Long Continuance in Bearing,
Health and Vigor of Plant,
Adaptation to Shipment,
Great Profit,**

And other desirable qualities, it is the most valuable Strawberry of which we have any knowledge.

Its character has been damaged in some localities, by the dissemination of spurious varieties called Jucunda.

We direct attention to our Descriptive and Illustrated Catalogue and Price-list for full information of this wonderful fruit. Our prices, it will be seen, are greatly reduced.

Fillmore is only second to **Jucunda**—our No. 700 on our grounds—and is of great value.

Our Illustrated Catalogue gives full descriptions of all the leading varieties: Lists for home use and convenient market; for market purposes or home use; distant and convenient market; early, medium, and late, in the order we esteem them. It contains much valuable information on Strawberry Culture, and will be sent to all applicants enclosing 10 cents.

RASPBERRIES.

There is a greatly-increased interest in raspberry culture. The demand for the fruit is ten-fold what it was a few years ago, and exceeds the supply.

The **Philadelphia**, **Clarke**, **Hornet**, **Pilate**, **Franconia**, **Improved Black Cap**, and a few other kinds, are much sought after. Our stock of plants of the above varieties is equal to any demand.

NAOMI.

This promises to become the leading Raspberry of the country—hardy, productive, large, of good color and quality, and the very best for transportation. We subjoin the following testimonials, and might add many others:

A committee of the Ohio State Horticultural Society, as the result of a critical examination of this variety, report:

"They were highly pleased with the evidence given of the immense productiveness, as well as beauty and excellence,

of the fruit, and expressed the belief that the firmness of the berries was such as to render it better fitted for transportation than any other variety of equal excellence; while in regard to the hardiness of the plants, the testimony of all who have long known the variety is, that no injury has ever been known to result from the winter."

Mr. M. B. Bateham, Secretary of the Ohio State Horticultural Society, after a thorough examination of it, and test on his own grounds, says:

"For beauty and excellence of fruit, combined with great productiveness, vigor, and hardiness of plant, I know of no variety that equals it. The fine size, color, flavor, and firmness of the berries must make the variety pre-eminently valuable as a market fruit as well as for amateur use."

Dr. John A. Warder, President of the Ohio State Horticultural Society, after an investigation with the *ad interim* Committee of the Society, says:

"The fruit is large, of good color and quality, and has borne transportation to great distances. The canes, as seen in the neighborhood of Cleveland, appear to have resisted the severity of the previous winter without shelter, and were bearing a full crop of fruit."

We have secured the entire stock of genuine plants for sale, with perhaps the exception of one very small lot. All we do not sell we shall plant on our own grounds, being satisfied that it will pay us better to do so than to sell at any price. We are confident of being able to ship the fruit from our farm to New York, a distance of over four hundred miles, in the best condition.

BLACKBERRIES.

Kittatinny has given more general satisfaction than any other variety.

Our large stock of plants includes **Kittatinny**, **Wilson's Early**, **New Rochelle**, and **Newman**.

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The demand for Currant-bushes last spring and fall was unprecedented, and promises to be even greater the present season. It is well known that it is exceedingly difficult to procure varieties true to name. After many years of expensive and careful effort, we are now able to offer an immense stock of all desirable kinds, which we guarantee to be genuine, and to give satisfaction in all respects.

We offer one and two year-old bushes of **Versaille**, the very best; **Fertile d'Angers**, very similar to the above; **Cherry**, best for jelly; **Victoria**, very late and good; **White Grape**, best white; **Black Naples**, best black. For illustrations, descriptions, etc., of these and other varieties, see Catalogue.

GOOSEBERRIES.

The **American Seedling** is entirely free from mildew, a strong grower, and enormous bearer. Fruit very excellent. We have imported a large number of foreign varieties, of the very best kinds, which we offer at reasonable prices.

The new edition of our **DESCRIPTIVE AND ILLUSTRATED SMALL-FRUIT CATALOGUE** is now issued. No one cultivating Grapes, Strawberries, Raspberries, Blackberries, Gooseberries, or Currants, even in the smallest quantity, should be without it. It gives information what varieties to plant, how to avoid failures, and to secure success with the above valuable fruits. Though the edition is large, it will likely be exhausted early.

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The entire amount of the mortgage will be about \$30,000,000, and the interest \$1,800,000 per annum in gold. The present currency cost of this interest is less than \$2,500,000 per annum, while the gross earnings for the year 1868, FROM WAY BUSINESS only, on AN AVERAGE OF LESS THAN 700 MILES OF ROAD IN OPERATION, WERE MORE THAN

FIVE MILLION DOLLARS.

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NEW YORK.

Jan. 20, 1869.

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INTEREST, 1st FEB. and 1st AUG.,

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TWENTY-FOURTH ANNUAL REPORT OF THE New York Life Insurance Company, OFFICE, 112 AND 114 BROADWAY.

JANUARY 1, 1869.

Amount of Net Cash Assets, Jan. 1, 1869. \$6,774,326 01
Amount of Premiums received during 1868. \$3,913,130 07
Amount of Interest received and accrued, including premium on gold, etc. 766,144 13— 4,679,260 20
Total. \$12,452,606 21

DISBURSEMENTS
Paid Losses by Death. \$741,043 22
Paid Annuities and for surrendered and cancelled Policies. 135,963 45
Paid Dividends to Policyholders. 1,225,865 96
Paid Commissions and Agency Expenses. 493,714 73
Paid Advertising, Physicians' Fees, and Reinsurances. 76,978 97
Paid Salaries, Printing, Office, and Law Expenses. 130,558 64
Paid Taxes and Internal Revenue Stamps. 35,107 00— 2,839,131 76
Total. \$10,613,474 45

ASSETS
Cash on hand, in Bank and in Trust Company. \$397,351 51
Invested in United States stocks—cost. 2,978,907 49
(Market value, \$3,154,808 75.)
Invested in New York City Bank stocks. 41,549 00
(Market value, \$47,862.)
Invested in New York State stocks. 947,856 42
(Market value, \$991,070.)
Invested in other stocks. 210,579 00
(Market value, \$223,500.)
Loans on demand, secured by United States and other stocks. 408,100 00
(Market value of securities, \$506,745 80.)
Real estate. 878,806 59
(Market value, \$1,028,806 59.)
Bonds and mortgages. 2,369,900 00
Secured by real estate, valued at over \$5,000,000 (buildings thereon insured for \$2,055,700, and the policies assigned to the Company as additional collateral security.)
Loans on existing Policies. 1,357,735 03
Quarterly and semi-annual premiums, due subsequent to Jan. 1, 1869. 475,066 07
Interest accrued to Jan. 1, 1869. 60,449 44
Bonds accrued to Jan. 1, 1869. 2,387 76
Premiums in hands of agents and in course of transmission. 564,764 85— 10,613,474 45
Add excess of market value of investments over costs. 387,348 15
Cash assets Jan. 1, 1869. \$11,000,822 60

LIABILITIES OF THE COMPANY.
Amount of Adjusted Losses due subsequent to Jan. 1, 1869. \$92,131 00

MORRIS FRANKLIN, President.

WILLIAM H. BEERS, Vice-President and Actuary.

THEODORE M. BANTA, Cashier.
CHARLES WRIGHT, M.D., Assist. Medical Examiner.

Amount of Reported Losses awaiting proofs, etc. 18,700 00
Amount reserved for reinsurance on existing Policies: (\$86,397,710 10 Participating Insurance at four per cent. Carlisle, net premiums. \$1,047,434 65 Non-participating at five per cent. Carlisle, net premiums) 8,473,594 08
Return Premium 1868, and prior thereto, payable during the year. 727,115 40— 9,311,540 48

Divisible Surplus - - - \$1,689,282 17

DURING THE YEAR 9,105 NEW POLICIES HAVE BEEN ISSUED, ENSURING \$30,765,947 67.

THE BOARD OF TRUSTEES HAS DIRECTED the redemption, on and after the first Monday in March next, of the last and only outstanding Scrip Dividend (that of 1867), and from the Undivided Surplus of \$1,689,282 17 they have declared a CASH DIVIDEND, available on settlement of next annual premium, to each participating policy proportioned to its "contribution to surplus." Dividends not used in settlement of premiums will be added to the policy.

By order of the Board.

WILLIAM H. BEERS, Vice-President and Actuary.

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HENRY K. BOGERT, (Bogert & Kneeland,) No. 49 William st.
JOHN L. ROGERS, (late Wyeth, Rogers & Co., Importers.) No. 54 William st.
JOHN MAIRS, (Merchant.) No. 20 South st.
WM. H. APPLETON, (Appleton & Co., Publishers.) No. 92 Grand st.
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WM. A. BOOTH, (Booth & Edgar.) No. 65 Front st.
GEORGE A. OSGOOD, (Banker.) No. 35 Broad st.
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ÆTNA INSURANCE COMPANY OF HARTFORD.

INCORPORATED 1819.

CAPITAL, - - - - - \$3,000,000

NEW YORK AGENCY:
62 WALL STREET.

Assets January 1, 1869. \$5,150,981 71
Liabilities. 239,553 98

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JAS. A. ALEXANDER, Agent.

FACTS FOR THE LADIES.

I have had a Wheeler & Wilson Sewing Machine in my family for fifteen years, and have not paid a cent for repairs. All my family sewing has been done with it, and all the fur-ling generally of my store.
St. Paul, Minn.

A. MOOR.

Stem-Winding Waltham Watches.

These watches represent the perfection of American industry. As they excel both in principle and finish, they will be guaranteed to run closer than any watch of foreign manufacture. An examination of our large assortment is respectfully solicited.

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